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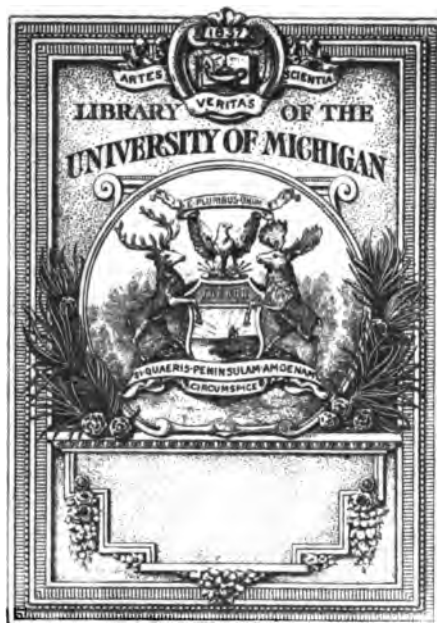
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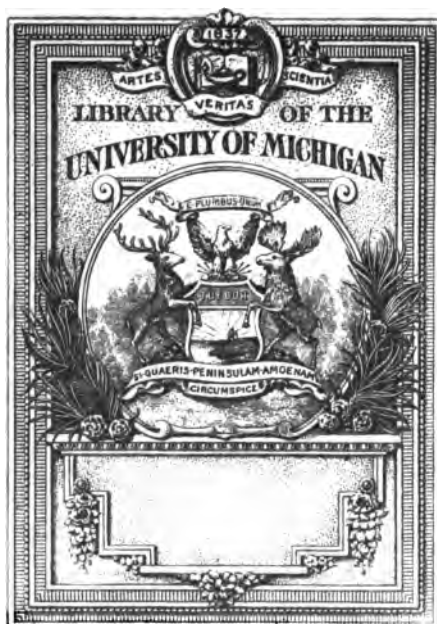
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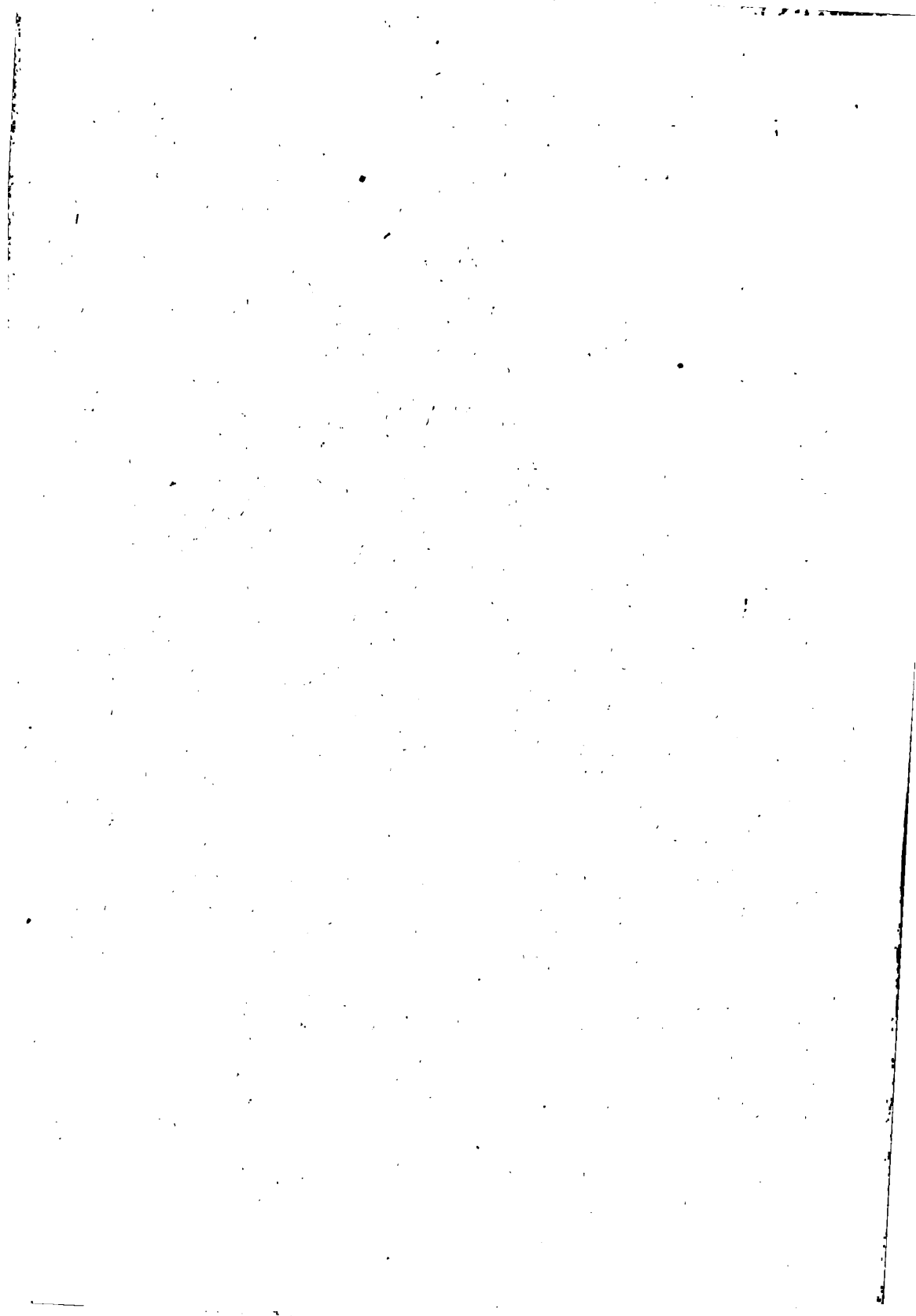
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THE RURAL SCHOOL
IN THE UNITED STATES

—BY—

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PREFACE.

ONE need not feel called upon to make any apology for offering a study on the Rural School in the United States. It is felt by those most competent to judge that it is one of the most pressing of all our educational problems. There has been a birth of interest in this important subject within the past dozen years. An increasing number of educators and public spirited men have devoted more or less attention to this subject, and we have several recent studies on a rather comprehensive plan. But none of them have been taken as a pattern for the present study. It follows a plan of its own. Its one object is to show the typical rural school in its limitations, its manifest defects; and then to point out what it might be made. It does not belong to those studies which find a remedy for an existing evil in some pet theory or legislative act. The rural school can be brought up to what such an institution ought to be only by a great campaign of enlightenment and education along broad lines. Public opinion must be shaped, and the public will aroused to activity. This points to a sphere of influence and activity for educational and social leadership in the near future that is unprecedented in our educational history. Hence, in the reconstruction of the rural school there is room for the play of all sorts of talent and all kinds of activity along many lines. Some of the great needs are more money, better teachers, better schools plants and school grounds, a much improved and enriched course of study, and a longer school year. But of still greater moment is that enlightened public opinion which is keenly sensitive to educational needs and values, which knows what it wants in the rural school and how to get it. Keenly felt wants condition all real social improvements. So it must be in the improvement of the rural school.

It is only fair to say that it was this strongly felt need of better understanding of the rural school problem that led the author to attempt this study; not any sense of fitness or special preparation for the work. If it serves to interest another, or others, to make a more thorough study, giving us more carefully and elaborated conclusions, and directions what to do for the improvement of the rural school, the writer will feel rewarded for his efforts in behalf of what he regards as a great cause.

During the prosecution of the study the author has received help from several men with whom he was in more or less intimate touch, and he desires to record his obligation and gratitude for the assistance rendered. The suggestion of the subject for the study was made by Dr. Theo. B. Noss, Prin-

cial of the California (Pa.) State Normal School. He has also made valuable suggestions on the method and content of the study. To Dr. M. G. Brumbaugh, my esteemed teacher in the University of Pennsylvania, and to Drs. H. T. Lukens, Chas. E. Browne and C. L. Ehreneld, stimulating colleagues in the Normal School faculty, thanks are due for assistance on points that could not now be enumerated. But for the statements and conclusions the writer alone is responsible. A still greater debt is due, if possible, to the unnamed band—state, county, and district superintendents in many parts of our country, who so willingly took the time to answer a long questionnaire. These officials have to a large measure supplied the data for the inductive part of the study.


For the comparative and historical parts the author is indebted to the Libraries of the University of Michigan, Harvard University, the Library of Congress, and that of the Bureau of Education in Washington, and hearty recognition is here expressed for the courteous and efficient assistance rendered by the authorities of the several Libraries.

J. C. H.

CALIFORNIA, PENNSYLVANIA, April 7, 1908.

The Rural School In The United States

INTRODUCTION.

 TWO methods are available for the student of any social fact, phenomenon, or product. According to the first method he will concern himself with the size, the amount, the numerical proportions of the thing in hand. Observation is superficial, confining itself to traits that are patent even to the casual observer. The other demands a consideration of traits and distinctions of a more hidden, more subtle, more intricate, more recondite nature. Progress is more painstaking, more doubtful, less rapid. In the former method, distinctions of quantity are of primary importance, while in the latter those of quality are of chief concern. Finely drawn distinctions are not necessary in this place, but it might be pointed out that the one is the method of the sense, the other the method of reason; the one is the method of the letter, the form, while the other is the method of the spirit. The ultimate value of everything is expressible only in terms of the spirit. If the further progress of civilization and of democracy is not to be impeded all thinking men and women must assume toward every social fact and problem an attitude that will take cognizance of distinctions and marks of quality rather than those of quantity and number. For the sake of convenience and brevity in this study, the terms *quantitative* and *qualitative* are adopted to characterize these two attitudes and methods respectively, in spite of the technical significance of the terms in chemistry and other sciences. (130).

In America our educational progress has been made along lines that are chiefly quantitative. Of course, there can be no qualitative consideration of education until its quantitative development has received a certain amount of emphasis. The qualitative investigation of any set of facts would seem to come later, too, because the qualitative is a later type of reflection. (130) So far, largely absorbed in the accumulation of a vast material basis for a great civilization, we could scarcely be expected to have done very much in the domain of qualitative reflection.

It must be conceded that in our estimate of people, the quantitative standards appear with entirely too much prominence. Clergymen are often classified according to salary, and other professions are not more exempt from such standards. Even our great poets and prose writers have been enumerated in classes according to the amount received in royalties, and the number of editions and copies of their

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... are Socrates' tuition fees as teacher? ... in Plato's Dialogues, or on Aristotle's ... are the material rewards of Aeschylus. ... as playwrights? are questions which ... already to find asked anywhere in the

... perhaps, are these standards quite so ap- ... educational system in schools of all ... for large numbers, for million dol- ... magnificent school architecture planned ... proportions, for libraries which shall number ... hundreds or thousands, for landscape ... on a scale of imposing dimensions. This ... events has invaded the inner life of the ... to university, and is very conspicuous ... and in our daily programs of lectures and ... kindergarten it would seem to be the aim ... exercises, games, songs, stories and plays ... every day's work. In the elementary ... to include in the curriculum every phase of ... complex civilization, while our high schools ... at lower schools in quantitative enrichment. ... has to a certain extent invaded the sacred ... college, the latter has wreaked a fearful ... its entrance requirements so high as ... the capacity of the high school, and it has ... up into the sphere of the university. The ... the varying needs of its thousands of un- ... (most of whom are just out of the high ... school,) is compelled to plan and offer a vast ... so that many students are seriously em- ... know what courses to choose.

... these the only cases illustrating the over-em- ... have been placing upon the quantitative side of ... development, for the normal school in many ... a still more glaring example of this phenomenon, ... might almost call a law. Its curriculum is generally ... with a lot of material that legitimately belongs to ... school or even the elementary school. It often hap- ... the normal school graduate goes out wondering ... that stuff" called psychology, history of education, ... of theory and practice, was taught for. It is a case ... between the academic and the pedagogical ... of the different subjects of study, and the academic ... has practically displaced the pedagogical.

Quantitative standards are further shown in our tests for ... for admission to college or university, for entrance

upon the pursuit of the various professional or technical careers. Until quite recently, and even now to an extent which would surprise most of us if we reflected upon its meaning, these various requirements have been set forth as such and such books, such and such chapters of specified books. Even to-day our colleges know no better standard of requirement in modern languages than that which is suggested by the phrases "so many pages of modern prose and so many pages of classic poetry." To a less extent this is still the standard also in Greek and Latin. There is an interesting attempt to substitute qualitative for quantitative standards in language work, to be seen in the announcement of certain college catalogues, to the effect that one oration committed to memory shall be counted equal to three as ordinarily studied. (1)

Another illustration of our uniform quantitative attitude is to be found in the development of our common school course of study from the three R's. That it has been a case of quantitative rather than qualitative enrichment goes without saying. This line of enrichment has run through the interesting fields of history, geography, algebra, physiology with all of its hygiene and temperance addenda, drawing, object lessons, vocal music, nature study, literature, language work and elementary science. Now the loudest cry is rising from every educational assembly for deliverance from the tyranny of this whole quantitative procedure. We have not abandoned our ideal of enrichment, but we can procure real enrichment only through the elimination of all that is unnecessary or antiquated in our present course of study.

Most of our texts in the several subjects have been written altogether from the quantitative standpoint. The subject must be treated in a scientific, that is, in a full manner. There has been no time to waste in considering the child's nature or real needs in life. The question of the time-allotment of the different subjects was not even thought of until recently. Hence, our texts have generally been mere compendiums of the several subjects of the curriculum, and woe to the child whose memory failed to record every fact or whose will rebelled at the outset of the stultifying procedure! He was unhesitatingly branded a blockhead, without any thought of a coming irony of fate, when history should discredit the pedagogue's judgment! These facts are set forth not as denunciatory of educational theory and practice in America, but simply to establish the point that we have really done little towards a serious study of our educational output on its qualitative side; or at least, we have not gone into the schools to find out just what are the causes of given characteristics in our educational output. But there are many signs

that we are now entering upon that phase of reflection upon our theory and work. The modern movement of child study may be cited in proof of a change of front in the whole educational world. This new discipline has amply proved its right to exist, if in nothing else, at least in this, that it has led to more serious study and reflection than teachers have ever made hitherto. Perhaps the most pregnant question of modern educational thought is this: "*What is the nature of the creature we are to educate?*" And with this interrogation in mind, the modern teacher approaches his educational work. Child study is giving us a new attitude in all our educational work, and teaching us that the child is something more than a *tabula rasa* upon which we can re-image the world in whatever fashion or garb may suit our desire or convenience; it is a self-active being well on its way to self-mastery and world-mastery before it ever comes under the influence of the school as such. With him there is assimilation of new things to previous experience and life or else no real growth results from his contact with the teacher as teacher. This process of growth by assimilation and reaction to environment goes on, too, quite independently of teacher and parent, although it is either facilitated or retarded and perverted by those persons. With the majority of teachers the chief trait of pedagogical practice for upwards of a thousand years has been the memoriter appropriation of preceptive declaration or the imitative execution of command, all originality and reflection being wholly unwelcome, and from the child study movement comes the only ray of hope that we shall ever be delivered from our thralldom to this memory fetich in elementary education.

In the next place we have begun to reflect upon our course of study and every separate part thereof. We have learned much from the creeds of our masters in education. We have called in question the older statements of the aim of education and even that of life itself, and, not being wholly satisfied with our findings, mark them *tentative*. We will listen attentively and respectfully to anyone who seems to have anything to say on education.

We have collected vast quantities of facts on the nature of the child, and all sorts of educational problems, and have endeavored to draw some conclusions therefrom, and we got little further than *tentative*. And this is the only way to advance to a higher standard of doctrine and practice in education. Other sciences and disciplines have gone through stages that were similar. In fact, all the sciences of recognized standing have proceeded by steps as uncertain and wavering as we are now making, but some of them have walked out into the day-light of accuracy and maintain the truths of their several

domains by a comparatively universal validity of principle and law. (2)

There can be little doubt that we are rapidly approaching a re-adjustment of our whole public or common school educational system. There is no room for the play of pessimism as to the final outcome or the character of this adjustment. We shall not lack our educational prophets and lawgivers in the future as we have not lacked them in the past. The whole mass of material which has been collected and is now being rapidly increased by newly discovered facts in every field of study which centres in the child or man, unpromising as it may appear, is shot through and through with the golden threads of truth and potent suggestion. Some day he will come, who can disentangle every thread of gold from the encumbering mass and fit it into the tapestry. In the meantime, all ought to be grateful that the mass is accumulating, that educational problems are increasing in number and complexity, and that we may hope for the advent of the master weaver!

CHAPTER I.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS OF PRESENT-DAY
RURAL COMMUNITIES

The first thing that the student of the rural school of to-day will notice is the changed economic and social conditions of rural communities. With respect to these conditions, rural communities in most parts of our country have undergone more change within a half century than rural communities ever did before. The evidences are more striking in some parts than in others, but everywhere the changes have been silently taking place. Referring to the accumulation of wealth and the promotion of human welfare, Charles Francis Adams says that the change witnessed the past century was greater than that of all previous centuries. (3) But the real condition of the rural inhabitant depends upon many things besides the accumulation of material wealth. Along with the satisfaction of basal material wants has come a number of new wants, and their satisfaction or the lack thereof. That wants have an important function in the production of wealth is quite as true as the statement that the possession of material wealth enables us to satisfy many of our wants. Therefore wants are as much to be reckoned with in social studies as surplus of production.

It will be in order to name and discuss briefly some of the agencies and means by which the farmer's economic and social condition has been changed within the last few decades.

1. *The general extension of railroads and trolleys.* The advent of a railroad transforms any community through which it passes, and especially any in which it has a station. The railroad is a means of connection between the rural community and the rest of the world, with its highways of trade and its news centers. It is really the railroad that first brings to clear consciousness in the rural mind the fact that there is a great busy, throbbing, real world far away from the confines of the little farm. With what wonder and awe, and deep emotions that are nameless, an isolated farmer saw the first train come flying towards and past his little estate! That first train in the '40's, '50's, '60's, and the '70's, what a magician it was! What changes its "chain of linked uproar long drawn out" has wrought all over our land! It has gone linking thousands of rural neighborhoods with the great world of commerce, of manufactures, of literature, of art, of every known industry. Now for the first time come to the rural store the unknown fruit and the nameless article. But soon the names, tastes, sounds, qualities and virtues of these commodities are as well

known in the rural village as they were in the marble palaces on the great avenues. Sensation, perception, and apperception have been doing their work in a world all but unknown. The people are being educated by the unfailing accompaniments of the railroad.

The first car-ride of an isolated farmer and his family stands out in memory with clearness and lively interest. At first being only excursions to county fairs or campmeetings, these trips lengthen out to some trading emporium, state or national capital, to some sea-side or mountain resort.

The trolley has extended the work already begun by the railroad. It has rendered frequent access to neighboring cities and towns an inexpensive affair. It has suburbanized vast stretches of rural country lying in the environs of all our large cities. It has not displaced the railroad, but it has met a need not adequately provided for by it. The value of the trolley car in marketing certain kinds of rural produce has been noticed by every observant traveller. The trolley railway has changed the economic and social condition of the farmer wherever it has gone, and its rapid extension to all parts of the country is one of the marked features of our age.

Thus further educational processes are at work in the life of the farmer and his family. He will interpret most that he sees from the standpoint of utility on the farm, and he learns much that will have this utilitarian value. Thus the railroad and the trolley are directly and indirectly a means of distribution for new ideas of life, labor, and economic efficiency. With the extension of the railway has come,

2. *The general introduction of labor-saving agricultural implements.* By means of such implements one man can now do the work which it formerly required many to do. Thus multiplied efficiency of labor through labor-saving devices is found in agriculture as well as in modern manufacture. In this place may be named the sulky-plow, harrow, cultivator, and liner; the mower, harvester, header, and thrasher; hay-loaders and rickers, corn-huskers, to say nothing of implements employed on the great farms of the West, such as the steam-plow and large harvesters which head, thresh, clean, measure, bag the wheat, and pile these bags in equal heaps by the side of the moving machine. As early as October 1859, the scientific magazines and agricultural papers had much to say about the celebrated "Fawks" Steam Plow," by which the cost of breaking up an acre of prairie was reduced from \$2.50 to 64½ cents. There were eight plows abreast, and the traction engine was of thirty horse power. Three men could plow with it twenty-five acres in a day. This invention was rewarded, and further inventions encouraged, by a \$30,000

prize given by an Illinois Society. The plow sold for \$4,000. (4)

These labor-savers affected more than the economic condition of the farmer. With their introduction came more time for reflection and the substitution of brain-work for brawn-work. The increase of the leisure of a community is a factor which must be reckoned with in social science and all kindred subjects. So far as labor is concerned the effect of the introduction of such implements is two fold; viz; (1) to lessen the asperities of agricultural toil, and (2) to shorten the hours required to take care of a given number of acres. The effect of increasing a community's leisure hours is a raising of the "standard of life." (5)

In the Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics we read that the effect of the ten-hour law in England was to raise the educational condition of the laborers, as shown in their increased attendance at church, public lectures, mechanics' institutes; raising horticultural and agricultural products for exhibits in the time thus saved; in attendance at singing schools and societies, and in increased attendance at night schools. (5) The raised standard of life signifies an increase in the number of one's wants, but not necessarily in the number whose satisfaction requires material things. There are economies of a higher order than those that have to do with material, basal wants. Professor Alfred Marshall says on this point: "Let us take the term Standard of Life to mean the standard of Activities and Wants. Thus an increase in the Standard of Life implies an increase of intelligence and energy and self-respect; leading to more care and judgment in expenditure, and an avoidance of food and drink that gratify the appetites but afford no strength, and of ways of living that are unwholesome physically and morally." (6)

3. *The weekly, or the daily newspaper and more frequent mails; and free rural mail delivery.* We are all imitators to a greater or less extent because our minds are all receptive to what may be called suggestion. "Our whole mental life is a progressive series of suggestions, or of integration of ideas." (7) Both the railroad and the newspaper do much through the mere power of indirect suggestion, but they do more than suggest: they instruct, inform, and educate. The educative material of the railroad and the newspaper may differ widely from that set forth in Fox's *Book of Martyrs*, but it touches the life of the rural inhabitant at every point and changes him.

The newspaper keeps him informed on the great movements of the day, acquaints him with the literary and artistic characters of his own and other countries, gives him many biographies and historic facts of value. It instructs him in

the movement of prices for the commodities which he may have to sell, or which he may desire to purchase. He is often influenced in his business transactions by the information thus obtained. He is no longer subject to the deceptions of over-reaching cattle dealers, fruit dealers, or purchasers of grain. The farmers' paper and magazine, too, have made progress with the railroad and the general newspaper, and have gone beyond those limits, for there are few agricultural communities in which no agricultural literature is received.

Free rural mail delivery is an element alike in the economy of time and energy, and in the education of the farmer. It is a new and educative experience in the life of any of us (whether it be in the lane of a country home or in the marble alcoves of the Library of Congress) when we are first conscious that an employe of Uncle Sam comes to learn and do *our* bidding. It raises us a little in our own estimation, and if the elevation is not too great, the experience can do us only good. It makes us a conscious "part of all that is," and impresses upon our mind the solemn lessons of mutual dependence and of promptness, helpfulness, and gratitude,—of social solidarity, in a word.

It was a happy co-incident that thus the improvement and multiplication of labor-saving implements and more frequent mails brought the farmer greater leisure and at the same time a tempting menu of fresh rending matter.

4. *The Patrons of Husbandry, or Grange.* This national agrarian organization was instituted in Washington, D. C., Dec. 4, 1867, by Mr. O. H. Kelley, himself a farmer. Just previous to the institution of the grange, Mr. Kelley, then a clerk in the department of Agriculture, was appointed by President Johnson to look into the condition of the Southern farmer. The result of Mr. Kelley's investigation was to convince him that the thing most needed was organization—organization for protection, for educational and social improvement. It grew rapidly in the '70's, 13,000 subordinate granges being organized in 1873 alone,—an abnormal development probably stimulated by the condition which brought on the financial panic of that year. In 1875 there were 1,500,000 members. This was an abnormal condition, and many whose ends were unworthy and whose hopes were doomed to disappointment, dropped out of the order, allowing the membership to fall to a normal level.

The educational and social features are much emphasized by all the prominent grange lecturers and writers. There is a saving in the price of many agricultural necessities, but this part "pales into insignificance in comparison with the educational benefits of the order." (8) The benefits and gains to the

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farmer have been, according to the proclamation of the national grange (1891) as follows :

- (1) Organization promoted among farmers ;
- (2) Sphere of women has been broadened ;
- (3) Condition of the home improved ;
- (4) Renewal of patents on sewing machines prevented, saving to the farmer 50 per cent. of their cost ;
- (5) Important contests with railroads gained ;
- (6) Oleomargarine law passed and enforced ;
- (7) Interstate Commerce law passed ;
- (8) Agricultural representation in the President's Cabinet secured ;
- (9) Establishment of Agricultural colleges and experiment stations in many states ;
- (10) State support and encouragement of farmer's institutes in several states ;
- (11) State appropriation for public schools increased in a number of states ;
- (13) Encouragement of many local improvements, such as roads, bridges, halls, libraries, fire insurance, etc. (8)

The isolated farmer is at the mercy of the rural store-keeper in the matter of the prices he must pay for certain necessities ; and the prices of these are often fixed far more by custom than by cost. He can do much to protect himself in selling his produce, thanks to the daily and weekly newspaper,—but not so in his petty purchases. The co-operative buying of the grange order is often his only salvation from higher prices than those paid in city stores. One Massachusetts grange, having 102 members, purchased in 1891, \$3,000 worth of goods for its members. (9)

But the grange organization is but one feature of a great Farmers' movement which, as Walker says, has taken different directions and affected different phases of the farmer's life. These may be classified into : (1) The movement for *organization*, showing itself in the Farmers' alliance, Grange, National Farmers' Congress, etc. (2) The movement for *education* especially in the fields of scientific agriculture, economics, and politics. A National Reform Press has been organized with about one thousand newspapers pledged to support the interests represented in the Farmers' Movement. (3) *Co-operation*, a secondary feature of organization. This principle has been employed with mutual advantage in the marketing of grain, cattle, etc.; in the purchase of many things needed on the farm ; and in fire insurance on crops and buildings. (4) *Political action*, through agitation, education, and the ballot, looking to the improvement of the agricultural classes. (10)

5. *The agricultural colleges, the experiment station, and the farmers' institutes.* These agencies have as their mission the education of the American farmer in the scientific principles of agriculture in all of its departmental divisions. The

channels of transmission for this scientific knowledge are the college classroom, reports on research problems and all kinds of experimentation, more popular reports and the instruction of the farmers in the institutes, and the official reports of these institutions. In many of the states the agricultural colleges rank among the first institutions in the character of their faculties, equipment, libraries, output in graduates, and scientific achievement. They put every farmer of their respective state into potential relation with the latest and best ideas in the various departments of agriculture.

These agencies have greatly affected the economic results of farming as may be shown by a few illustrations. The experiment stations have studied the nutritive value of different foods for live stock, and have shown the high value of corn stover. This is valued at \$100,000,000 a year now in our country. And by the same means it has been shown that cotton-seed is of great value. The combined feeding and fertilizing value of cotton-seed in the United States is now estimated at \$150,000,000 a year. The results of its investigation along the lines of cold storage for cheese and fruits, vegetable and flower culture under glass, in breeding and selection for the purpose of improving the crops, the introduction of new crops, values of fertilizers, the values of insecticides, and and fungicides have been as great as those to which figure values have been assigned. (11) The same authority points out that other results, though less palpable, perhaps, must be considered in connection with the work of these institutions. He claims that the educational influence of these institutions is greater than the direct economic results. They have tried to counteract the prejudice against the agricultural college. They have also furnished the material for the formulation of a science of agriculture, and point out the way to research problems and courses which are of as high academic value as research courses in any university. (11)

Since Oct. 18, 1887, the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations has been very active and efficient in its efforts to promote agricultural education in our country. (12) There are some sixty agricultural colleges and schools that receive funds from the national government. Many of these are offering now special short courses to extend their helpfulness to a class of young people who will thus be greatly benefited, but who could not take the full four years' course required for graduation with a degree. (13)

Besides the work of these institutions, should be mentioned the great work that is being done in the U. S. Department of Agriculture itself. It has become a sort of graduate school in agriculture. Since 1897, 496 students of graduate rank

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have been admitted to special research work under the scientific experts of the department. (14) The total number of publications issued by the Department of Agriculture in 1903 was 938; and the total number of copies of all publications issued in the same year was little short of 12,000,000. Of these 7,000,000 were farmers' bulletins. The educational influence of this vast body of literature on the agricultural population must be great. One noteworthy fact is that urban people are becoming more interested in agricultural problems. (15)

The Farmers' Institute does for the farming class what university extension lectures do for urban and town populations, and is thought to be an outgrowth of that movement. On the other hand, it is an extension of the work of the Agricultural College and experiment station. It is strong throughout the United States and British North America. In 1902-'03 forty-five states and territories of our country supported these institutes in part by appropriations varying in amount from \$20,000 in New York to \$35 in Hawaii. For this purpose Illinois set aside \$18,500; Ohio \$16,981; Minnesota \$16,500; Pennsylvania \$15,000; Wisconsin \$12,000; and Indiana \$10,000. The total amount thus appropriated that year was \$187,226. There were 904,654 persons in attendance upon the sessions of these institutes, and a total of 353,700 reports of such meetings were printed and distributed. More than one-third of the lectures were given by the members of the staffs of agricultural colleges and experiment stations, thus securing to the farmers a class of instruction of the highest value, because given by experts and authorities in their several lines. (16)

A sample program of one of these meetings is given that any reader who may be unfamiliar with the character of these meetings may see just what is done. It is that of a farmers' institute held in the Cumberland Presbyterian Church at Brownsville, Pa., Saturday morning, afternoon and evening, February 25, 1905.

Practical roadmaking, Mr. Foight.
Farmers of to-day, Mr. Joel A. Herr.
Maintenance of soil moisture, Prof. Franklin Menges.
Growing of crimson clover, Hon. F. R. Schwartz.
Improvement of corn, Prof. Menges.
Centralization of schools, T. A. Jeffries, Esq.
Large fruit growing, Mr. Herr.
Market gardening, Hon. Mr. Schwartz.
Hay and leguminous crops, Professor Menges.
Poultry, Hon. Mr. Schwartz.

A question box was conducted at the afternoon and evening sessions, and local talent was drawn upon for the usual opening formalities, music, and a short paper or two. Professor

Menges is a member of the Pennsylvania Agricultural College staff, and lectures as an expert ; all the addresses seem to have been of a high order. (17)

6. *The tendency to specialization in agriculture and intensive farming.* There is a tendency which is at work in our country to-day, and it must be studied by those who would know what problems confront the farmer. This tendency was long ago noted and commended by John Stuart Mill. (18) We are indebted to Mill for his clear presentation of the economic and social implication of this tendency. It is in fact both cause and result of greater mental efficiency. This reminds one of Emerson's conception that "with God every end is a new means."

In this type of agriculture more and more depends upon mental efficiency, and less and less upon chance ; brain-labor again takes the place of brawn-labor. But aside from any consideration of mental efficiency, it may be safely stated that the cultural effects of the two types of agriculture, the extensive and the intensive, differ greatly ; for the more intimate knowledge of plant anatomy and physiology, and of the life-history and growth of plants, which is obtained and necessary under a system of intensive agriculture, is a kind of knowledge bringing one into vital contact with nature's most interesting and significant laws and processes, and giving its possessor a reverence for all law, and a consequent disposition to seek it where it is not at first apparent. If this line of argument is consonant with the facts, it follows that intensive agriculture has introduced new and positive elements of culture and enlightenment into an occupation which is not generally held to be conducive to those high attainments. This departure in agriculture may be studied in all of its economic and social bearings in the several departments of truck farming, fruit raising, berry farming, dairying, stock raising, floriculture, bee culture, poultry culture, and the culture of flowers and vegetables in greenhouses. The intellectual demands of such industries upon one who is to succeed therein are: (1) a knowledge of the soil ; (2) a knowledge of the plant or creature to be cultivated ; (3) a knowledge of the market ; (4) promptness in reaching it ; (5) command of the requisite labor in due quantity and quality. General intelligence is the necessary background for the proper display of the specialized knowledge. To this group of intellectual prerequisites, there must be one added which is mainly moral, viz., painstaking care. Co-operation may not be increased by the introduction of specialization in soil or animal culture, but the farmer of this type is in closer touch with the great market centers and news centers. The socializing and educative

effects of this contact probably balance the loss of those beneficial results which always flow from co-operation, whose socializing value is very great.

7. *Improved rural architecture* is one of the differences which separate us more or less sharply from the earlier decades of our national history. There are no doubt many districts in our country, where retarded development is the rule, but these are more or less narrowly circumscribed, and merely serve as real or apparent exceptions to the law. As early as the '60's, and doubtless earlier, much was written and said about the improvement of farmers' homes. Much of this was hortatory, but in many of the farmers' magazines and newspapers of those days cuts were given to exhibit the best ideals in practical rural architecture.

Now it is the condition of the farmers' home and the activities centering around it that must serve as the point of departure for any thoroughgoing study of rural social conditions. There can be no doubt that the comforts of the farmer have been greatly increased in all the more progressive parts of the country within from three to five decades. He enjoys comforts that the wealthiest could not command in colonial days. The feudal lord may have had greater power and wealth, and he may have led an army, but he could not boast the comforts of a typical American farmer of to-day.

In the nature of the case, it will be impossible for us in our study to determine precisely just what a typical farmer is or what the precise character is of his home. But a knowledge of certain tendencies and changes already wrought out by and for the American farmer is necessary if one hopes to understand present rural educational conditions and point out what changes ought to be made in that system of education.

8. *The Telephone.* The introduction of the telephone into the neighborhood and home of our American farmers has facilitated the transaction of agricultural affairs, proven a saver of time and energy and money, and thus already has become an important item in agricultural economy. But this is to follow the introduction of this instrument of civilization to only half of its results; for the farmer's sense of oneness of life and interest, of solidarity, has been thereby intensified. He may communicate with any one of his neighbors at any moment. It conduces to a better knowledge of one another's movements, feelings, plans, and state of health. The health and welfare of the neighbor's family may be minutely inquired after, and thus the community be built up from day to day into stronger bonds of sympathy and goodwill.

Committees of the grange, the church, the Sunday School, the farmer's institute, school boards, rural teachers' associations

may now transact much of their business without traveling farther than to the telephone instrument. The ring of this instrument is a familiar sound in an ever increasing number of rural homes. It is to be reckoned as another of civilization's own instruments for the attainment of another of its beneficent designs. According to the United States Census returns for 1902 there were over 2,315,297 instruments in use, transmitting over 5,000,000,000 messages that year. This is an average of one instrument to every thirty-four inhabitants. The number in rural communities is increasing very rapidly. (19.)

9. *The great mail order store* has done its moiety to change the economic and educational condition of the farmer. It must therefore be reckoned among such agencies. The claim of this store is that it dispenses with the services of the middle man, and saves that cost to the purchaser. It has built up a large and increasing confidence in its policy, and in its ability and willingness to redeem its promises, so that among farmers and mechanics on every hand one can find the voluminous catalogues of these stores. These are profusely illustrated, giving explicit instructions in the method of selecting and ordering the staple desired. They are often patterns of directness and simplicity. These catalogues are devoted to business, and contain no striking advertisements. Often a nominal sum is charged for them. The profuse illustrations reduce to a minimum the difficulty of selecting goods without seeing them. In the judgment of the farmer the goods stand the test, and thousands of the farmers are classed among its patrons. The educative effect of this mode of purchasing, the real character of the goods thus sold, the effect upon the farmer's sum of expenses for annual purchases, ought to be studied more carefully and analyzed much more in detail than the limits of this chapter will allow.

And yet in spite of all these agrocentric influences and forces which would seem to be strong enough to hold the farmer to his rural demesne until his dying day, we hear widespread murmurings of

A Rural Exodus. This is not to be classed as one of the agencies which have silently changed the farmers' economic and social conditions; it is rather a result of those conditions than a cause. It is really to be taken as the farmer's criticism of his own condition in the country as contrasted with that of his fellows in cities and towns. It is a movement, an attitude, a criticism, and the causes that have produced it must be sought by the same analytic method by which we have endeavored to trace the causes of certain changes in the economic, social, and educational conditions of the farmer.

What is the rural exodus, then? We hear on all sides complaints of the depopulation of certain rural areas of our country. Farms are lapsing into wilderness and barrens. This lamentation strikes us all the more profoundly, because it comes mainly from New England where the country homes have sent up to the colleges, and thence out into the world to bless it, so many men of knowledge, skilled in the technique and high art of leadership. In the early days of New England, brain-culture went hand-in-hand with field-culture. No sooner had an early New Englander gotten possession of a homestead, than his attention went out actively toward the school, the academy, the college, that his boy might obtain an education. Education has never been regarded as a luxury in New England, but has ever been held as a necessity. The motives may have changed or not changed, but they have existed, and they have been strong enough to be effective in the production of a distinctive type of character—the better type of New England character as we know it to-day, and as we can study it from generation to generation in the development of our country. Shall these dear old homesteads, therefore, which for several centuries have been the recruiting stations for the colleges and professions be abandoned to the wilderness and the hardy and adhesive foreigner? “If so,” ask our lamenting seers, “what shall become of New England hegemony in the learned professions, and in the noiseless but mighty domains of poetry and the philosophy of life?”

There is another class of observers who take the matter far less seriously. “It,” say they, “is a corollary of the great economic ‘law of diminishing returns.’ There is a point in the scale of diminishing returns beyond which it simply does not pay to farm land, or work mines, or cut timber, or dig oil wells.” (20) If this theory of the situation is correct, the rural exodus is an indication of rising intelligence, of a better understanding of economic principles as applied to agriculture. It shows a commendable determination not to be satisfied with the old ways, simply because they are old.

In action the rural exodus takes one of two forms: (1) from one agricultural area to another; (2) from the country to the town. We have, therefore, now to ask: What have been the chief causes of the rural exodus? We may answer:—

1. Disquieting reports of the vast returns from “bonanza” farming in the great West. Thus influenced many a superior eastern farmer broke every tie that bound him to the old homestead, and moved out West to seek his El Dorado in the wheat and corn fields of the virgin prairies. Letters from the immigrant and his family kept up a continual ferment in the old neighborhood. Others followed him, and so on.

2. The same sort of reports of more rapid advancement in material possession, made and to be made, in commercial and manufacturing enterprises. Here is one of the initial links in that chain of events which culminated in all the conditions and problems of a rapidly increasing urban population. These reports are a yeast of disquietude in almost every rural community in the older parts of our country, and the yeast, as Iago says, "is working."

3. The desire of ambitious country parents for better educational and cultural opportunities for their children than the country afforded. This is an important factor in the rural exodus. Here we have those familiar psychical phenomena of report, suggestion, modification of apperceptive systems, and imitation. This is one of the most helpful and suggestive fields in all the range of social investigation, and some one would do well to work out these phenomena as they are manifested in changing rural communities.

4. The desire for more leisure hours for study, reading, etc., is one of the agencies, and has its influence.

5. The growing sense of isolation and the grinding monotony of the agricultural life has also been a potent factor in producing the rural exodus. The social instinct is one of the strongest of our human nature. (21)

One hears less about an instinct for change, for diversion, for variety, for the novel; but it is really a question whether it is not an instinct, and a very important one. And it is so general a characteristic among most civilized peoples as to lay serious claim to being a national, if not a racial trait. James gives us some grounds for such a claim in his discussion of *Curiosity*. (22) And so Tennyson is true not only to the poetic art but to the psychology of the human heart, when he sings in *Ulysses*:

"I cannot rest from travel; I will drink Life to the lees . . .
I am part of all that I have met;
Yet all experience is an arch wherethro'
Gleams that untravelled world, whose margin fades
Forever and forever when I move.
How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rest unburnish'd, not to shine in use!
As tho' to breathe were life."

6. The narrow and restrictive measures pursued by many fathers with their sons are responsible for many a youth's anabasis to the city and freedom, where he may have opportunity and some time for the play and expansion of individuality. More time for, and wise direction in, reading, active interest in the son's development into full and conscious possession of himself and all his powers, into sym-

UNITED STATES

... laws, into conscious
... her activities and
... the rural community
... and they would have
... in the intellectual,
... evolution of our national
... a begging of the ques-
... tion to which our whole

... constructiveness, of prog-
... "social control" through
... seeking wider spheres for
... grace and beauty of which
... (as an instinct) has driven
... of culture and knowledge,
... mind. Unless there is an
... can only impoverish the
... the true poet will pray the
... of his lyre to make joy-
... in a thousand hamlets and on
... the singer, the statesman
... of righteousness and the larger
... great purpose. The world must
... its Prophet its Philosopher, its
... its Painter, its Sculptor,
... its Humorist and its Achiever,
... is sometimes impoverished or not.
... justifies the means. No one doubts
... considerable return to the community
... equally true in the case of those
... of endowment or talent? (23)

CHAPTER II

THE RURAL SCHOOL OF TO-DAY AS COMPARED WITH
THAT OF AN EARLIER DAY.

The plan of this chapter precludes anything like a detailed account of the rural school as it was before 1870, when it was fast approximating a common organization, and to an almost identical type of administration, instruction, and discipline in all parts of our country where it had been established for any time. (24) This tendency was at that time so strong as to arouse notes of warning from various quarters lest those who guarded the destinies of the public school should be so much influenced by the spirit of uniformity as to neglect local interests and demands. (25) The comparison in this chapter can be made, therefore, only in a general way. A knowledge of the salient characteristics of the earlier school will be taken for granted.

If the host of European visitors who travelled in our country up to the time of the Civil War to study our social life, our educational system, our institutions, and our customs, were permitted to re-visit our country this year of Grace, 1905, one of the first remarks they would make would be: "How the schools have changed in architecture, in the character of their teaching bodies, in the number, spirit, and appearance of their students, in the course of study, and in everything that goes to make up a school and a school system!" That these changes are real, and not mere semblances, is a part of every pedagogical creed. The changes which our supposed re-visitors, Siljeström, Dupont de Nameur, Bishop James Fraser, De Tocqueville, Grimke, and the rest, would remark upon, would doubtless cluster around the schoolhouse, its location, furniture, and equipment, the teacher, course of study, general character of students, length of term, supervision, text-books, and the attitude of patrons.

What have been the changes, therefore, which have taken place within the past third of a century in our public school, and more particularly in our rural school?

1. The log schoolhouse has passed away entirely unless it be in some mountainous or retarded district where architectural innovations are latest to intrude; the same statement may be made in respect to the little red schoolhouse. (26)

Generally built by the voluntary effort of the patron farmers, who had no knowledge of school hygiene, and very little of school architecture, the schoolhouses were uncomfortable, quite pervious to wind and rain, with low ceilings where

any were to be found, and extremely awkward and stiff desks and benches. (27) In all these respects the contemporary rural school is greatly improved. Albert P. Marble says that much interest was taken in school architecture during the two decades beginning with 1871. (28) He claims that this attention was well directed and bore fruit in the improvement of schoolhouses, and in sanitation. Walter Sargent writes: "Varying ideas of child life, of what constitutes education, of the relation to the community, have changed the location and shape and furnishings of school buildings. There are portrayed the renaissance of public education with its demand for good buildings and equipment and well trained teachers, its higher ideal of discipline and its encouraging promise for the future. The architecture and equipment grow very confidential with the records and secrets they hold." (29)

While these statements are not equally true when applied to the rural schoolhouse, yet the general trend is toward improvement in rural school architecture. The houses are of better size and proportions, have higher ceilings, and manifest slight attempts at the ornamental. They are often kept neatly painted and are provided with a small play-ground, larger window area, shutters, and flag-pole. It must be admitted that the question of the proper orientation, ventilation, and heating of schoolhouses, has not seriously burdened the country mind. There are some indications of greater care in the choice of sites for the location of rural schools.

2. The furniture of rural schools has greatly improved within comparatively recent years. The writers of school reminiscences are very clear on this point. This commendable change can be verified in the experience of any person whose memory spans a quarter of a century. The unyielding, clumsy desk and bench have been consigned to the rubbish heap and a type similar to those of the city school inaugurated.

3. School apparatus has increased in quantity and improved in quality in many of our rural schools. Reading, anatomical, and geographical charts are often found, and they are valuable auxiliaries in the school room. Even if their contents are not always understood by the young teacher, it is a perpetual stimulus of curiosity, and a difficult question from some bright student will probably cause a teacher who lays any claim to self-respect to make some after-school researches into the intricacies of her charts. A school globe and a set of mathematical blocks are also often found. Rather accurate maps are generally to be found on the walls of the small schoolhouse.

4. The course of study is greatly changed. The number of subjects has been increased, and the demands in several

of them have been lightened by the elimination of what have come to be regarded as unimportant details. This process of elimination has been especially marked in arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history, but it may be traced in other subjects, as in spelling and reading.

The hope of those who have gradually developed our present rural school curriculum was that it should not be less thorough than it had been in the days of the three R's, and that it should be a far richer course. It is planned to give the student a much better idea of his environment. This was the avowed aim of its authors. Geography is necessary that the student may read more intelligently, may know about the earth as the home of man. History is necessary that he may know how the present has grown out of the past, how great men brought things to pass, and how our country has become what it is. Physiology and hygiene are necessary that he may know his own body, the laws of health and growth, the structure and functions of the body and its parts. And so on through the list. Commissioner Harris speaks of the five windows of the soul, and thinks they find their counterpart in the five great lines of human inquiry, viz: mathematics, science, history, literature, and language and grammar, (30)

5. The teachers of these schools are not the same teachers. With the passing of the little schoolhouse must be recorded also the passing of the old schoolmaster. Generally a young woman or a young man who knows nothing of the traditions of the earlier teacher, now occupies his place. The teacher of to-day is younger. A year or two earlier she was probably a student in the same school in which she is now a teacher. The requirements for certification as teacher are steadily becoming severer, and yet young people pass the examinations, qualify, secure a school, and teach.

Formerly the teacher was generally a man; now it is more frequently a young woman. In either case the average term of service is shorter than formerly. The young woman may be tactful enough to secure a reappointment for the second or third term; but according to the law of averages, she will teach no more than three years. She will then marry probably, and the place will be taken by another who has come up from the ranks of country school students. If it is a young man, he remains only until he has enough money to go to college, enter upon the study of some profession, or set up in business for himself. His experience too is limited by the law of averages to a service of three years. The fact that a rather large number in the aggregate remain longer than the

term above indicated only goes to show how many there are who really teach less than the average term of service.

It often happens that this young rural teacher has been away to a normal school or an academy, and may even be a graduate. Many such teachers bring to their work a knowledge of facts, principles, and methods, together with a confidence and enthusiasm that are simply irresistible, and consequently teach unusually good schools. This type is to be found in every county where the normal school has gone with its service for the rural school. It was this school whose interests the normal schools were designed first of all to promote.

6. Marked changes, too, must be recorded in the size of the rural school in most parts of our country. The old building designed to accommodate from forty to sixty children, if it still remains, is no longer filled. A smaller number of students attend it. Moreover, instead of the sound of boundless merriment connected with the old-time games participated in at that earlier rural school, a quieter type of child is found on its playground. The scholars are often painfully reserved and the conditions are not such as to conspire to the play of generous rivalry and the contagious interest of numbers.

The prevalence of smaller families is doubtless a contributing cause of the smaller school attendance. The rural exodus resulting, as is often claimed, in the utter abandonment of some rural homesteads, and the prevalence of smaller families would suffice, therefore, to explain why the school now has a smaller attendance. Is the smaller school enrollment enough to explain the lack of youthful exuberance on the playground? Unfortunately, no; for it has for several decades been held that a different type of family frequently occupies these homes, a family with a lower standard of life. If so, it would send to the rural school a set of pupils less playful, less ambitious, less active withal, and less responsive to the play instinct and to the educational and cultural appeal.

The greatest care must be exercised in such a study lest isolated cases should be taken as examples of the whole, and lest rare or local types be too broadly generalized. But the rural school will never be fully understood until the inner life of the rural home is much more fully understood than it is now. If the school is only one of the educational agencies which nourish ~~and mold the whole life of a child~~, the home certainly, must be named among the first of such other agencies in importance. Possibly it would be within the truth to say that up to the time of his entering the school as such, the home has been more than a school to the child. But what kind of school has it been? There are homes and homes, and the educational value of the home depends almost

wholly upon the character of the parents. Hence arises the educational significance of such matters as the standard of life and the family budget; matters long ago carefully studied and clearly exhibited particularly by such men as LePlay, Lavergne, Lavoisier, and Laveleye, the founders of *social science*. Equipped with a thorough knowledge of the concepts and methods of the sciences, both general and special, Le Play set out with his comrade, Jean Reynaud, to travel on foot 4250 miles in 200 days that he might study social conditions of all sorts of people and test his social theories. Thus he gathered the vast material which took shape in his work, "*Les Ouvriers Européens*, 1885." "Show me your budget, and I will read your mode of life," wrote Le Play. Wants cannot be satisfied without means, but wants are the marks or indices of character, seemed to be Le Play's line of argument. Hence the importance he attached in all his studies to the budgets and wants of typical families. (31)

Mr. Arthur F. Bently about 1893 made a careful study of the economic conditions of the farming class in a small part of one of our great western states. (32) Such studies promise well for a better understanding of the rural school and its needs, but to be of the greatest educational value the studies must include what some one has dared to call the "higher economies," the whole intellectual, moral, aesthetic, and religious environment of those farmers.

7. The attitude of the neighborhood may teach us a great deal about the character of the school and its hold and influence upon the life of the community. This has certainly changed within a few decades. The rural school has never been oppressed by the demands made upon it as a social center for the community, and yet this demand is generally far less than it was formerly. The spelling-bee, the singing school, the Sunday School, the literary and debating society, lectures and preaching, all meetings of a decidedly socializing value, are held far less frequently in the schoolhouse than they were several decades ago. Doubtless the rural exodus, the prevalence of smaller families, and the different type of rural family are sufficient to explain the neglect of the rural school as a social center. But to these should be added for the purpose of complete analysis the increase in the number of small struggling rural churches with their distracting, disintegrating influence so far as the feeling of social oneness or solidarity is concerned. Hence the neglect of the rural schoolhouse for all but strictly educational purposes.

The school exhibition was another neighborhood meeting whose memory lingered long in any rural community where some active, ambitious teacher developed some feature

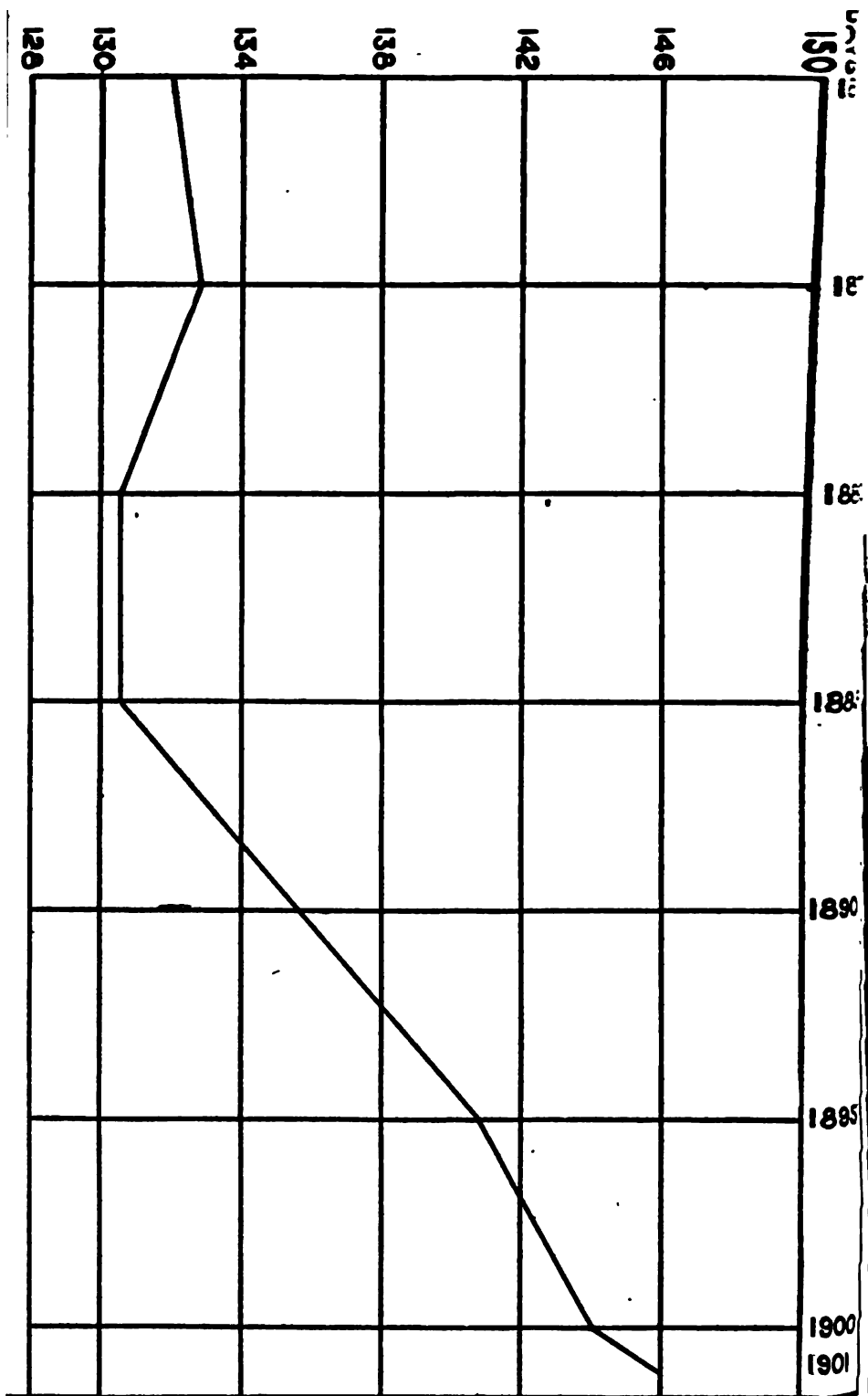


TABLE I. LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM. From U. S. Com of Ed. Report, 1903, Vol. I, P. LXXXVI. This curve shows only quinquennial fluctuations, not annual ones as in the original curve.

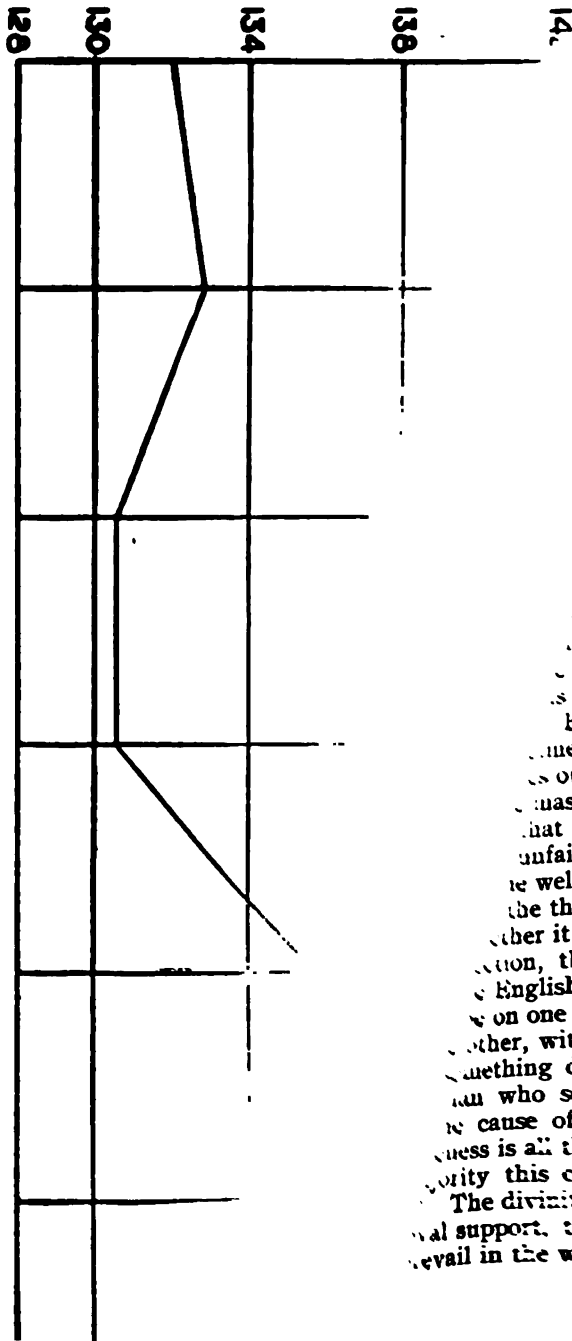
that was new. All these meetings furnished subjects of conversation of a value distinctly higher than that of the average neighborhood gossip. They made a community aware of its own powers, made it conscious of itself as a creative center on a small scale. The effect upon the community was very similar to that upon some Greek neighborhood from which a youth went forth to win a prize at the Olympian games. Talent in students received recognition in the minds of the entire community, and an exhibition of unusual merit might for a generation be heralded in a rural neighborhood.

8. Length of school term is another respect in which our rural school differs from that of several decades ago. By repeated additions of a month, or even of a half month, often, the term has gradually grown from three or less to four, from four to five, five to six, six to seven, and from seven to eight months in rural districts in which the lengthening process has gone so far.

And in no other country of the world, probably, have such changes in an educational system come about so gradually, so unobtrusively, and nowhere, surely, have these and other like changes been more completely due to those evolutionary forces which are everywhere at work in great democratic masses. But these changes often exhibit the skill and the wisdom of the educational leader.

This is the proper connection in which to discuss briefly the relation between the people and their educational system, and the significance and method of educational leadership, although these are topics not very closely related with the subject of this chapter.

Leaders of aristocratic, if not of anti-democratic instincts, may have done signal service for the cause of popular education in America, but to have any measure adopted and thereby given a local or state sanction it has always had to be submitted (1) either to universal suffrage where some constitutional enactment was concerned or (2) to representative bodies in state, country, city or district, chosen to such position by universal suffrage within such political division. This is not to the disparagement of educational leadership, in which there is just now, happily, a growing interest. It only shows what may be termed one of our educational dogmas—in all educational affairs of the people it is the people in the last analysis that must decide. Shall the learned and capable therefore adopt the *laissez-faire* policy in educational matters? This would be the greatest of social fallacies. Fortunately our attention has been directed to a sounder philosophy. It has been pointed out that the people do not really know what they want, and that it is the function of education, from the



STATES

construct, suggest, of their best, at least this cannot, vision, or forensic, of suggestion, here are the basic, leadership. America, world of melioristic, thus effected largely, expert, judicious edu-, the great educational, ve and trained leader-, a period of unprece-, school system through, on the last of all to feel, ship.

principle of the referendum, American public educa-, of its functioning it is, But if one were to make, ment of "privileged" or, es on the one hand, and of, masses on the other, it is by, that he would assign to the, unfailing wisdom and judg-, the welfare of the state. There, the thought, feelings, will or, whether it be that of the American, tion, the Roman Senate with, the English House of Lords. It is, on one side of a great question, other, with a small minority and, something divine in the attitude of, man who sees, espouses and gives, the cause of truth and justice and, quess is all the greater when in the, vorty this cause is given currency, The divinity is in the nature of the, val support, the ceaseless effort that, prevail in the world."

CHAPTER III.

OUR RURAL SCHOOL AS COMPARED WITH THAT OF PRUSSIA.

It has been said that Melanchthon was the teacher of Germany, and also that Germany has been the schoolmaster of the world. This is high praise, and in many respects it must be conceded that it is well merited praise. No other nation has ever given such serious and effective thought to the education of its youth. No other nation has ever developed a system of education so well suited to its varied needs and standpoints. No other nation has so satisfactorily solved the problem of universal education, bringing so inherently valuable a school training within the reach of every child in the land, and bringing every child to the door of the schoolhouse in the attitude of ready and reverent discipleship. The German schoolmaster has begun at his own home to carry out the secular aspect of the Master's great command to disciple all people. But this secular evangelization has radiated widely from the Fatherland; for the German schoolmaster's philosophy, his psychology, his pedagogy, his methodology, his spirit of devotion, his broad, profound scholarship, his enthusiasm, and his lofty idealism, have set the educational standards for the civilized world, and have been doing so for nearly a century.

This does not mean that Germany's system of education is perfect, even when criticised according to the standards of an earlier day; it does not mean that she needs to make no changes readapting her system to a changed environment and the demands of a new age. It does mean that in spite of imperfections, her contribution to the science and method of education has been greater than that of any other nation. Her supremacy in the sphere of educational philosophy and practice is due both to the external circumstances in which she was placed in the opening years of the nineteenth century and to the very genius of the people. These have conspired to force serious attention upon the education of all the inhabitants, and this at a time when by no other nation was universal education receiving such attention.

If to Athens is voted the credit for having solved the problem of an aristocratic education in its physical, intellectual and æsthetic aspects, to Germany must be given the credit for having discovered the worth of the individual and the great corollary thereto, viz: that education is the birthright of every child born to a nation. So that Germany took up the problem of the education of the race where Athens left off about twenty-two centuries earlier, converted a splendid aris-

THE GERMAN COURSE

The German course is a compulsory one for all pupils in the first three grades. In the fourth grade it is optional, and in the fifth and sixth grades it is optional for the boys and compulsory for the girls. In the seventh and eighth grades it is optional for both sexes. In the ninth and tenth grades it is optional for the boys and compulsory for the girls. In the eleventh and twelfth grades it is optional for both sexes. The German course is a compulsory one for all pupils in the first three grades. In the fourth grade it is optional, and in the fifth and sixth grades it is optional for the boys and compulsory for the girls. In the seventh and eighth grades it is optional for both sexes. In the ninth and tenth grades it is optional for the boys and compulsory for the girls. In the eleventh and twelfth grades it is optional for both sexes.

Reading	Writing
Arithmetic	History
Science	Natural Science
Physical Education	Gymnastics (boys)
Music	Drama (girls)

For language are included speaking, reading, spelling, writing and under mathematics are to be named arithmetic and elementary geometry. If it is remembered that pupils of the *erste* whether graded or not, are divided into three *Stufen* (Stufen: elementary, middle and upper, the following table which exhibits the number of hours given to any subject in each grade in a week, will be perfectly plain.

TABLE II. GERMAN COURSE OF STUDY.
ONE-CLASS SCHOOL: ONE TEACHER.

Subject	FL. GR.	MID. GR.	UP. GR.
Religion	4	5	5
German Language	11	10	8
Mathematics	4	4	5

SUBJECTS	EL. GR.	MID. GR.	UP. GR.
Drawing		1 . . .	2
Science		2 . . .	2
Singing	1 . . .	2 . . .	2
History		2 . . .	2
Geography		2 . . .	2
Gymnastics (boys) }			
Needlework (girls) }	1 . . .	2 . . .	2
Totals	21	30	30

If the school has more than one class, viz., if it is graded, the following differences are to be noted in the required course of study. Religion is taught only four hours in the middle and upper grades; German is taught 8 hours in the middle grade; arithmetic is taught 4 hours in the upper grade; geometry (*Raumlehre*) has two hours in the middle grade; science may be made 4 hours in the upper grade; and gymnastics and needlework have one hour added in the elementary grade.

At first sight it may not appear that the Prussian course of study is very different from that which is found in the American rural school. A closer examination is required to see what the course really is. There is in every subject a very definite object to be reached. In religious instruction, e. g., it is ability to read the Holy Scriptures with understanding, to secure a knowledge of the chief dogmas of the church to which the children belong, and to gain an acquaintance with the practices and duties of a religious life. Religious instruction may be divided into (1) sacred history as found in the Old and New Testament; the growth of the church in apostolic times, the history of the church fathers, the introduction of Christianity into Germany, Luther and the great stand taken by Protestantism for the freedom of the religious conscience. (2) Bible reading. In the upper grade chapters from the Psalms, Prophets, and the New Testament are studied.

On Saturday the lessons for the service of the next day are read and explained; a plan especially practicable in strictly rural districts where the families are adherents of the same denomination. (3) The Catechism. If it is a Lutheran community, Luther's Shorter Catechism is taught and explained. The lower grade learns the decalogue, Lord's prayer and texts of Scripture. The pastor completes this work, preparing the older children for confirmation when they leave school. (4) Sacred songs, which are taught through all grades, beginning with those most familiar in the particular community. About thirty of these are committed to memory after every difficulty has been explained. (5) Prayers. To the smaller children are taught prayers of morning, midday

and evening, and these are used at the opening and closing of school each day. The various church sacraments and services are explained to the older children. The German abounds in beautiful hymns which must have a high moral and religious value when thoroughly learned.

Instruction in language includes speaking, reading, writing, and grammar, and these are all kept in the closest connection throughout the course. They are thoroughly correlated. (1) In speaking the aim is to get the children (a) to pronounce every word correctly and distinctly; (b) to express their thoughts freely and accurately in simple sentences, (c) to express their thoughts using complex sentences; (d) to express correctly, fluently, and accurately thoughts obtained from book, story, address, in a topical manner. (2) In writing, pupils must be able to write and spell correctly anything that they will meet with in practical life. (3) In teaching reading the alphabet method is forbidden by law. About thirty pieces are taken for a year's work, and the constant aim is to have pupils understand thoroughly the thought that is contained in these selections. These pieces are to be chosen and taught so as to inculcate a taste for good literature, to awaken a love for the fatherland, and to give some acquaintance with the great writers. National poems are committed to memory after a thorough mastery of the thought content. (4) Grammar is given in the last years of the course and consists of simple sentences and the simplest relations of the parts of speech, followed by compound and complex sentences and a more thorough study of the parts of speech. So much time is given from the first to the thorough establishment of the correct language habit that little time is required for technical grammar. The reading book containing the gems of German literature above referred to, is the basis of all the other language work.

In arithmetic all the fundamental operations of concrete and abstract numbers from 1 to 100 are taught in the lower grade; in the middle grade come unlimited numbers, concrete and abstract, fractions, reduction, and the simple rule of three; while the upper grade children review and complete fractions, make applications of previous work to problems of practical life, and learn all the branches of percentage, and, where possible, the extraction of roots. Mental calculation (*Kopfrechnen*) is the kind of work that is given to the lower grade children, and it must precede slate work in every grade. By means of practical problems the system of money, weight, and all measures are taught. Clear, correct language in every exercise, ability to solve the problems independently, accurately, and rapidly are the points emphasized. Exercise books

are carefully kept by every pupil, and all exercises and problems are recorded therein and solved. This is the basis of the work in arithmetic, and not a text-book, for there is no such text-book in common use.

Elementary geometry, drawing, and history may be passed over with a few remarks. In all there is a very definite, practical aim, and the teacher knows exactly what that aim is. The national history is developed chronologically, but the committing to memory of chronological dates and events is forbidden.

Geography begins with a study of the child's immediate surroundings (*Heimatkunde*), and reaches outward through province, state, fatherland, and world. Mathematical geography is not neglected. Mere memoriter work in connection with cities, mountains, rivers, countries, and capitals is not allowed.

In science the work is made to touch closely upon the needs and surroundings of the children. It consists of objective studies in physiology, botany, zoology, mineralogy, and physics. Experiments are made wherever possible. The aim is to awaken a lively interest in natural phenomena and to inculcate the observing habit.

In singing, hymns and national songs are taught from notes, the aim being to make pupils sing correctly in chorus and alone. Thus each German child goes out equipped with a good elementary knowledge of musical notation, an interest in music, and has at instant command a large number of songs and hymns which he has committed to memory gradually through the school years.

It is unnecessary in this connection to discuss the work done in gymnastics and with the needle. Thus far in the study of the Prussian course of study I have followed Professor Levi Seeley. (35)

Again some one will ask, "Is there really such a great difference as is usually claimed there is between this course of study and that which is in vogue in our American rural school?" In order to establish the substantial correctness of this contention, it will be necessary to turn at once to a study of the work of the two schools as judged from the character of the output. This is not easy, as requisites for success in Germany are not necessarily the same as in America. But there are lines of approach that are promising and suggestive. The mental ability and culture equipment of children at any given age is certainly a fair criterion.

It is claimed by those who have gone into the matter with great care that the German child is about three years ahead of the American child in the same general class of school. (36)

This is the same as to say that from the general standpoint of mental power and mental equipment the German child at 14, when he completes the course of study in the *Volkschule*, is as far on and as ready to take up arms for the battle of life as the American child is after he has gone through the primary, grammar, and from two to three years of the high school course, when he would be 16 or 17 years of age. This is a serious charge of educational inefficiency laid against our common school ; and these charges deserve the most careful investigation, for they have been made not by enemies of our school or our people, but by educational experts. What explanations, therefore, can be given for the existence of such pronounced differences of achievement in the two educational systems ?

A number have been suggested and these should be taken up in order. It has been pointed out (1) that the difficult orthography of the English language is a great handicap to the American child ; (2) that there is great waste incident to our intricate system of measures for weights, value, distances, areas, solids, liquids ; (3) that our much shorter school year is a factor of considerable importance ; (4) that the American teacher is comparatively inefficient because of a lack of generally high professional training and accurate scholarship. (36) To these should be added other auxiliary causes, as (5) the indefiniteness and incoherency of our course of study, and (6) the substitution in the American school of the text-book for the living teacher, a procedure due in part to cause, (4) above, and also, no doubt to our endeavor, often quite unconscious, to throw the child upon his own resources at an early age. The dread of incompleteness, too has doubtless contributed to our attitude of reliance upon the text-book rather than upon the teacher.

That the mastery of our orthography is a difficult undertaking there is no doubt. Dr. L. R. Klemm declares that if by any means our orthography were simplified to the same extent as the German orthography has been simplified, it would be a saving of one year to every child in our country. (36) Comparatively little time is taken for it in Germany, and yet spelling reaches a degree of perfection which is not even expected in our country. The time saved in this way in Germany is devoted to history and literature. The studies of Dr. J. M. Rice have shown that much time is wasted in our futile attempt in America to attain perfection in orthography. According to Dr. Rice schools devoting forty minutes a day to the subject of spelling produce no better spellers than other schools in which fifteen minutes is the time allotment. He further contends that the results are largely if not wholly independent of the particular method adopted in a given school.

(37) Dr. O. P. Cornman, of Philadelphia North East School, made similar studies and reached practically the same results.

(38)

Another time-saving element in the German system is the slight demand made upon the memory in acquiring the facts necessary for denominate calculations. There are but ten words to learn in Germany or France in all of his mensuration tables, and if the student has thoroughly learned these in all their mutual relations he is as well equipped as our American child after his laborious attempts and re-attempts to master our intricate tables of weight and measures. These ten words are the Greek *kilo*, *hecto*, *deka*; the Latin *deci*, *centi*, and *milli*; and four metrical names, viz., *metre*, *are*, *liter*, and *gramme*. (39)

The longer school year is named rightly as a cause contributory to the different results in the two systems. Almost everywhere in Germany it is a year of 250 school days. In America, the average for the whole country is a school year of 145 days, and in the North Atlantic States it is 177.3 days.

(40) It requires very little arithmetic to show one that the American teacher can not teach as much in 177.3 days (much less in 145 days) as the German teacher can in 250 days. To this must be added another fact, viz., that the attendance is much more regular in Germany than it is with us. In our country there was in 1900—'01 an average attendance of 70.4 days for every child 5 to 18 years of age, or 98.8 days' schooling for each child enrolled. In the North Atlantic group of states these figures rise to 90.3 and 128 days respectively. (40)

2. The teaching body.

Permanency of educational policy, philosophy, method, the stability of the teacher's position, and the large measure of freedom he enjoys in the inner working of his school; his accountability to men of thorough educational and professional training; the thorough preparation the young teacher has received both academically and professionally; the inborn tendency of the German mind to seek a philosophic basis for all of its operations—its ever felt need of a philosophy of education;—these are causal elements of greater significance even than the factors which have been noticed above. It is probable that every American teacher who has really become acquainted with the inner workings of the German school would agree with the position that if the German teacher had a mother tongue with an unimproved, or an aphonetic, orthography, and the American teacher one revised according to the demands of a most rigid phoneticism, the children of the former would still be farther along on the highway of learning than those of the latter at the age of fourteen years. And if

so, it is due (in so far as the previous analysis fails to reveal adequate causes of the differences which it was attempted to explain) to what may be stated in the following brief proposition ; (1) the teacher is better prepared both on the knowledge and didactic side ; (2) the work he is to do is more definite in quantity and quality ; (3) the attitude of the teacher to the whole educational problem and process is different.

What, then, of the preparation of the German teacher and his attitude on the whole educational problem and process? At the end of a three years' normal school course, which every new teacher now must have had, or an equivalent, he receives an appointment for a probationary period of teaching. The grades given on this preliminary examination for the two year probationary period are "vortrefflich" or "excellent", "gut" or "good", and "genuegend" or "satisfactory." These marks are given in each subject of study, and also in skill in teaching, moral character, and fitness to teach. A candidate who has received "vortrefflich" may go on to teach three years with the consent of the proper authorities and the final examination may be held later or even be dispensed with. (41) But the teachers usually want to come up for the final at the earliest possible moment, i.e., after two years of probationary service. This guarantees them a permanent position and makes them in reality servants of the state.

For the final examination they appear before the state board of examiners, which consists of the faculty of the nearest normal school, presided over by a privy school councillor. This is sometimes called the candidate's "review examination." (42) The state desires to know whether or not he has been traveling the road of development. Has he developed skill in the instruction process? Has he gained in mastery in the fundamental branches of the curriculum? Has he branched out into vital contact with the masterpieces of educational literature and with current educational discussion in his country? Can he plan a study, outline it, write it up logically and clearly, and defend it skillfully? The examination is set with the purpose of bringing these facts to the light of day, and if the candidate can pass this test he is exempt from further test of that sort, and may settle down to his work as a servant of the State. He may with confidence expect to be respected, even looked up to, and not be without honorable employment. As he teaches from year to year the consciousness will develop within him that those whose lives he is so certainly shaping to his own will and mind, will a generation later be the makers and enjoyers of a somewhat nobler civilization. Seeley says: "The German schoolmaster loves the work to which he has devoted his life. And that love makes him as truly a consecrated and

self-sacrificing man as if he had devoted himself to the sacred calling. A nobler class of men does not exist on God's footstool than the German school teachers." (43)

The German teacher's preparation, conscientiousness, and spirit account for the fact that with so few text-books in the hands of his students he accomplishes such results as he does in the schoolroom. In Germany a text-book is never allowed to come between the teacher and the child; in America the teacher, the child, and often the superintendent are slaves to the text-book. The teacher's main task is to interpret some one's text, on a given subject, not to develop the subject in her own original strong way.

The normal school graduate is looked after during the two years' probationary teaching by the principal of the normal school, and is directed and assisted in the internal work of the school. Not only so, but even after the final examination the principal keeps up his visits, and if there should not be sufficient signs of a strictly professional devotion to duty, or if there were signs of inadequate preparation so far as the normal school could supply it, he could be directed to return to the normal school for such further studies and preparation. Thus the normal school keeps in the closest organic touch with the public school and acts as an "impelling, inspiring, and disciplinary force." (44)

In a number of important respects the German rural school master is superior to our American rural school teacher. He is eager to meet his examiners for the final state examination and pass the tests by them imposed. He has conscious power and a feeling of mastery in the several subjects of the curriculum. The young inexperienced teacher, however thoroughly he may be prepared academically and pedagogically, is sent to the city and town to get his first experience. And so it results that many of the best teachers are to be found in the rural schools. There are no such commonly recognized qualitative distinctions as with us, between the work of the rural and the urban school. The normal school course is precisely the same and in the western part of the Empire the rural are regarded as quite as good as the city schools. (45)

The rural schools of Germany have as much and as efficient supervision as the urban; but neither have as much as our urban schools because the German teacher's professional preparation and progressive spirit render supervision less necessary. (46) The same general statement relative to the preparation of teachers, supervision and length of term would hold of the schools in Austria and Switzerland.

The superior preparation and the high regard in which teachers are held in the community give them a rational self-

confidence which goes far towards guaranteeing the higher standard of educational efficiency there attained. Every man likes to be reflected at his full stature in the eyes of his fellow-men, and the proper degree of popular esteem is a factor which should not be neglected in determining the causes and conditions of one's professional efficiency.

The maturer age of the German teacher before he is put in charge of a school is an item of importance in any attempt to estimate the efficiency of the two systems of schools. It is possible for an American teacher to be put in charge of a school at the age of 17, or 7 years earlier than would be legal in Germany, where the minimal age for such appointment is 24 years (47). The Pennsylvania school law fixes the minimal age at seventeen for graduation from a state normal school. Some states do not grant a diploma before the age of 18. These are probably fair examples of minimal age limitations in the different states of the American Republic.

The average age of teachers in the country districts of Pennsylvania is 25, or one year beyond the minimal age requirement in schools of Prussia. The average age of Pennsylvania teachers in country and urban districts is 27 years. (48) The median age of teachers in Germany is 35.6; of France, 38.6; of the United States it is 27.2. (48a)

In Germany it is by no means a generally accepted proposition that the urban is better than the rural school, which latter class includes both ungraded and graded rural school. It is recognized that there are losses and gains in either location, city or country. Which is the better with teachers equally trained and zealous, and with equal school equipment? No less an authority than the Prussian Privy Councillor, Dr. K. Schneider, wrote in 1886 in response to an inquiry from the United States Bureau of Education as follows: "It is an undisputed fact that the ungraded schools, manned as they are with well trained graduates of normal schools, accomplish very satisfactory results. . . . Skill, endurance, professional zeal, and last but not least, the greater physical strength of their teachers are naturally a beneficial influence. It is well to remember, then, that the graded city school is not under all circumstances, and hence should not *brevi manu* be considered the better school." (49) An American author who visited the Prussian "crossroad schools" about the same time wrote: "I expected to find in them results such as may be found in the schools of an American backwood settlement, primitive in the extreme. But I was greatly mistaken. What I saw was admirable work and almost incredible results." (49)

I quote further in appreciation of the Prussian common school system, and this time from Dr. R. Laishley, who in

1886 visited these schools as a representative of the educational department of his home government in New Zealand. "We find . . . discipline established and maintained and correct information imparted in the most systematic mode possible, by thoroughly qualified teachers. The consequence is education—not merely instruction—is carried out under the most favorable circumstances, with no thwarting undercurrent of religious or local influences." (50) The same writer points out the superior disciplinary value of instruction given by thoroughly trained teachers. It makes possible (1) a wider range of subjects to be taught; (2) a thorough mastery of them; (3) a more thorough digesting of the facts taught so as to secure better results and a strict economy of time. (50)

Writing of the American schools, the same authority says: "Public education in the United States has not arrived at that condition which justifies its imitation as a complete system." (51) He particularizes the following defects: (1) too short a school term; (2) imperfect training, standards of qualifications, and appointment of teachers; (3) inadequate inspection. These he regards as conditions involving a high rate of illiteracy, incompetent teaching in many cases, and "a very general absence of that thoroughness without which veneer is apt to take the place of substance—causes which, as it seems to me, if unamended, not only retard the progress but sap the core of any nation." (52) It should be added in fairness that this author commends (1) our large measure of local government and school control; (2) promotion of technical education; (3) the teaching of temperance physiology; (4) provisions as far as they go against the employment of children of school age. (51)

Mr. Samuel Smith, M. P., wrote to *The London Times* in March, 1888, as follows: "There is no such thing as an uneducated class (in Germany). . . . Nothing struck me more than the intelligence of the humbler working classes. . . . The children are not crammed, but are taught to reason from the earliest stages. The first object of the teacher is to make his pupils comprehend the meaning of everything they learn, and to carry them from stage to stage, so as to keep up an interest. I saw no signs of weariness or apathy among either teachers or scholars. . . . The instruction was through the eye and hand as well as the ear, and question and answer succeeded so sharply as to keep the whole class on the *qui vive*. The teachers are, as a body, much better trained than in England, and seem to be enthusiastic in their calling, and the school holds a far higher position in the social economy of the country than they do with us." (53)

My last citation on the character of the German teacher and German education will be from Professor James E. Russell: "The greatest service which the German states have done for the cause of education is unquestionably the creation of a teaching profession. That first step taken by Humboldt in 1810, which provided for the examination and certification of teachers, was the inauguration of a policy to which Prussia has converted the civilized world. And as Prussia was the first to take her teachers into the service of the state, so she has maintained her leadership in making the profession worthy of public honor and preferment. No other country has done so much to dignify teaching, and to attract to it the best talent; none has so persistently and intelligently pursued the policy of making the teacher's position worthy of the man; nowhere else can such teachers be found. Prussia has not only created a teaching profession, but she has trained up a body of men to occupy it who are without rivals the world over. . . . The Prussian teacher generally speaking is a man of noble character, high ideals, generous impulses, broad and accurate scholarship and technical skill; he is a gentleman, patriot, and educator." (54)

CHAPTER IV.

THE RURAL AS COMPARED WITH THE CITY SCHOOL.

Of the whole public school system in America, it is the city school which best exemplifies that characteristic upon which I have enlarged in the introduction of the study, viz., the quantitative emphasis on the material side. This will become quite apparent if between the two schools a comparison is instituted in a number of different respects. The best plan, therefore, will be to proceed by the *seriatim* method, as before.

1. Size, scale of architecture, and cost of buildings. Many of our best city high schools are educational palaces, surpassing those of any other country in size, architecture and cost. Our best city elementary school buildings are a close second in comparison with those of the high school. In the statistical abstract of one state superintendent's report may be found this item: "Increase in the number of buildings valued above \$40,000." The same abstract places the average annual increase in the value of school buildings at \$406. The same state has 794 school buildings valued at less than \$1,000, while 207 of these are valued at between \$100 and \$500. (55) These conditions are fairly typical of the American states except where the movement for centralization has gathered some momentum. It is very clear that this increase in the value of school property is for buildings in cities and towns; for it would be entirely unnecessary to increase the size, and poor economy to increase the average expense of rural school buildings, as most school officials would think, when these schools have an enrollment often falling below 15 students. This condition obtains in more than half of the rural schools in all of the central and western states. (56) With minor exceptions, therefore, rural school architecture has remained unimproved for about a generation, while during the same period there has been the greatest activity in the development and improvement of urban school architecture.

2. With apparatus and all that part of the equipment which has to do directly with the efficiency of the teaching, the rural school is, comparatively speaking, not provided at all in the great majority of cases. One state having 1000 school buildings in cities and 10,889 school buildings in commissioner districts, reports an expenditure of \$945,867.62 for apparatus to be installed in the city schools, while for the same purpose in the rural schools the expenditure was but \$66,540.49. School for school, the expenditure for apparatus in the city is 154 times as great as that for the rural school. (57) One might

put this building for building. New York may be taken as a fair example, inasmuch as the regents' uniform requirements throughout the state would tend to increase the demand for apparatus in the rural districts of that state more than in states where the same centralized authority is not found. In Indiana carefully prepared lists exhibit the amount and kind of apparatus which is deemed necessary in the high school treatment of the several sciences before such schools shall think of asking for state recognition and approval. But there is no suggestion of apparatus for the ungraded country school. (58)

3. But the student of the American rural school will go on to find that in the matter of orientation, ventilation, appointments, and comfort this school suffers in the comparison. The doctrine that some exposures are to be preferred to others has not even been heard of in most rural communities. The school is located with its front door towards the road which passes the school, or if it is at a country road-crossing it is located in one of the angles. The sun may shine on any side or corner of the school—what is the difference? And so there come to be as many angles of exposure as there are possible directions for a country road to take, or one for each degree of the circle. In states where roads are governed more by the points of the compass, there would be more uniformity in the orientation of rural schools, but not necessarily more conformity to the laws of architectural hygiene. In the city school building there will generally be found some scientific method of ventilation, heating, sterilizing water, closets constructed on the most scientific principles, cloak room facilities which leave nothing to be desired, and ample provision for exercise and play indoors in case of bad weather. The rural school is without any of these advantages, even down to the item of ventilation in which its predecessor so excelled. The rural school "keeps," and it may do its work very well; but if so, it does it without any of those appointments which have, in these times of unparalled expansion in material comforts in the best homes, in offices, churches, cars, and in all other schools, become practical necessities everywhere else.

4. In the next place the course of study invites a comparison. In both schools the spirit of enrichment has been at work, but its progress has been far faster in the urban school. It is here that one finds elaborate outlines and manuals and sketches of requirements in all the different branches of the school curriculum. Without further generalization I shall proceed to give typical courses as a basis of comparison and more detailed analysis. And first, then, to the urban, or city school course. The course of study outlined for the public schools

of East Orange, New Jersey, will serve as the basis of this study, although facts will be adduced from the courses of other cities. East Orange is a suburb of New York City, is about ten miles from Jersey City, and has a population of 21,000 according to the last census report. Many school superintendents have placed at my disposal the course of study for their respective places, but all considered, the course mentioned is to be preferred. It shows decidedly elaborate characteristics. It is fairly representative of the best small city schools to be found in America; it is so explicit and definite in its directions to the teachers, whom it was designed to guide and direct; in the schoolroom it is seriously executed, and is not a mere educational idea sent forth from the superintendent's office; the course of study has been substantially in vogue long enough to test the educational equipment of the child brought up in accordance with its requirements; it is a "strenuous" course with no "soft snaps"; the corps of teachers is a picked one, almost all of them have been picked out by a superintendent who finds, chooses, and practically appoints his assistants, just as the responsible head of a great manufacturing plant or mercantile establishment would do.

TABLE III

Time table for the first eight grades, East Orange

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Arithmetic . . .	200	250	250	250	250	200	200	200
Lang. and Comp. 75	100	100	130	190	240	240	240	240
History					160	160	160	160
Geography . . .			100	150	200	160	160	160
Spelling	75	175	175	150	100	75	75	75
Reading	450	350	350	300	200	120	120	120
Writing	75	100	100	100	75	60	60	60
Music	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Drawing	60	60	60	60	80	80	80	80
Poetry and								
Science 90		105	105	100	80	80	80	80
Calisthenics . .	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Manual Training					40	40	40	40
Opening Exercise	50	50	50	50	75	75	75	75
Dismissal . . .	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Recess	75	75						
Totals per week	1335	1350	1450	1450	1450	1450	1450	1450

(59)

The first horizontal line of figures represents the grades from 1 to 8. The figures thereunder represent the weekly time allotment in minutes to the subject printed opposite, in the particular grade. Add the figures in the vertical columns to get the time for within school duties required of each grade

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will work out the numbers in the horizontal columns to get the weekly time requirement in each subject for within school work.

Give a tabular statement of the work contemplated in the program laid out above in the rural school. It is within the table to say that the work comprised under the heads of *English* (year), *Mathematics* and *Manual Training*, representing a weekly time total of 1200 minutes is largely a *leave surplus* in the average rural school. If this is multiplied by the number of weeks of school year, say 37.4, we shall have a total of 44880 minutes for work which is simply not attempted in the rural schools of our country. This exhibits some of the curriculum differences in a most striking manner, but there are still more differences to be pointed out. The weekly time total devoted to school work is only 1140 minutes in East Orange. Where time is so short, it is not surprising that any attention in the rural school curriculum is given to the study of that time is available for such work. The same general statement would be true of the other subjects excepting that they receive a larger proportion of time than in the city school. Is the typical city school curriculum a *leave surplus* for all the children of our country it is quite clear that the typical rural school curriculum exhibits very grave deficiencies.

In the *French* course, children may elect French, 1½ hours per week in the eighth and ninth grammar school grades and in the ninth year, Latin 3½ hours per week. Cooking is taught in the fifth, 1½ hours per week, in the sixth and seventh years. (61)

In the *historical* use of the great stories of the race, *Myths* (N. J.), is in the front rank of towns. Considerable time is devoted to this work and the matter is arranged chronologically. These chronological divisions increase in complexity as the course advances, so that when the student has gone through the high grades of the common school course he may be expected to be acquainted with a large part of the race's literary treasures in so far as those treasures have taken shape in the form of story or tale. The child, moreover, in such a course will have become acquainted with the more obvious divisions of ages into which literary history may be appraised. The list of references for this well planned work in literature covers ten pages in the printed course of study. (61)

It is provided in many of our best city schools that the child shall, during the progress of his common school course, come into possession of a body of positive moral teaching. This, as well as the teaching of literature, marks a difference between the rural and the city school course of study. (62)

To complete this survey of the curricular differences between the city and the rural school, it will be necessary to look into the course of study and time allotment of some typical rural schools. In one of our large North Central states the following conditions obtain. The rural school is divided into the following divisions termed Primary Form, Middle Form, and Upper Form. The weekly time allotment to the different forms is 475, 400, and 575 minutes respectively. To this must be added 175 minutes each week for general exercises and recesses. By subjects the time allotment is as follows: To reading, 550; to arithmetic, 300; to language, 200; to geography, 175; to spelling, 125; to history, 100; to physiology, 75; to writing, 100; and to opening exercises, 25 minutes per week. This allotment assumes a school day of six hours and allows two recesses of 15 minutes each. If it is further assumed that there are two classes in each form, which is probably too low an estimate, the weekly time allotment as just given for reading, arithmetic, language, spelling, and writing, must be divided by six, for these subjects are studied in all of the forms. This will give as the weekly time allotment for each class in these subjects much smaller figures, viz.: Reading, 90; arithmetic, 50; language, 35; spelling, 20; and writing, 15 minutes. If these figures and those for the typical urban school are brought into close juxtaposition the time allotment differences may be surveyed at a glance.

TABLE IV
Weekly time allotment in Country and City.

	W.R.S.	E.O.
Reading	90	250
Arithmetic	50	225
Language	35	160
Spelling	20	110
Writing	15	80
Opening Exercises	25	62
Poetry and Science	?	90
Calisthenics	?	50
Manual Training	?	20

This table shows the amount of time each class devotes to the subject specified. The program suggested for the Wisconsin common schools is drawn upon for the figures in the first column, the letters W.R.S. signifying Wisconsin rural schools. (63)

To guard against possible error in interpreting this table, it should be observed that the first column indicates recitation minutes, while the East Orange figures represent the entire time spent in school, both in preparing and in reciting the

several subjects. If it is allowed that half of the time indicated in the second column is used for the preparation of the several subjects specified, (no time being required to prepare writing), it will be found that the time which is devoted to the exclusive recitation of the first five subjects is 115 per cent. greater in East Orange than it is in the common or rural schools of Wisconsin. It may be assumed that the common schools of Wisconsin, are fairly representative of the best rural schools of America, because the settled policy, everywhere manifest in the North West, of co-ordinating all the parts of the school system so as to leave no unbridged chasms between the primary school and the state university, would have a tendency to raise the level of common school instruction throughout the state.

Closely related to the course of study is another item, viz :

5. The length of the school term. Exact figures exhibiting the differences between the rural and the urban school term are not easy to find. That there is a longer term in the city or graded school every one knows ; exactly how much longer for extensive areas of our country has not been ascertained. To learn something of what these differences are, it will be necessary to adopt a sort of method of approximations.

The average term of the city schools in New York is 190 days ; that of schools in "commissioner's districts" is 175 days. This gives to the city schools of the state a time advantage of 25 days over the common schools under the commissioners. But many of the town schools are graded and have a longer term ; so that the term of the strictly rural or ungraded school is certainly much less than 170 days. The average term for the whole state is 177 days. This shows that most of the schools of the state have a short term, for the term in the commissioner's districts is almost as long as the average for the state, while the average term in the cities rises to 195 days. In 1902 there were 10,690 commissioner's districts and only 1000 city school districts. (64)

Still greater term differences are to be found in the state of Indiana where the schools are classified into township, town and city schools. The average length of term for the state in 1901 was 140 days ; in the townships, 133 days ; in towns, 145 days ; in cities, 179 days. This gives the city school in Indiana a term-length advantage of 46 days as compared with the rural school. But the significance of these figures depends upon the proportion of rural schools in the state. In 1901 there were 10,961 teachers employed in township schools ; in town schools, 1,495 teachers ; for the cities the number of teachers is 3,893. Assuming that the teachers,

wherever they teach, have an equal number of students, the students having a short term were almost three times as numerous as those having a long term. (65)

In 1903 Missouri had a rural school term of 126 days and a term of 171 days in her cities and towns. This is a difference of 45 days. The total enrollment for the rural schools was 402,945, while in the city and town schools the enrollment was 301,248. (66)

South Carolina has some statistics on the point in question. The average length of term as reported by the county commissioners was 104 days, and the average term in districts under local laws, 174 days. These latter schools are the schools which have superintendents. This makes a yearly disparity of 70 days in the schooling of 248,480 rural school children within the borders of one state. (67) The city child has 70 days more schooling each year.

There are now only two great sections of our country not represented in these statistics, and I shall add some facts from states fairly representative of conditions in these sections, viz: Texas, of the South Central States, and Colorado of the Western States. Texas has an average school term of 102 days, and Colorado, one of 135 days. These figures are very close to the average school term, for the whole section thus represented. If the city school term is put at 170 and 180 days, for the two sections respectively, the rural term of the South Central section will fall 68 days short of the term in cities and towns; and the corresponding difference in the Western Section will be 45 days. (68)

To recapitulate, the excess of the urban over the rural school term would appear to be as follows in the states that have been mentioned: In New York, 25 days; in Indiana, 46; in Missouri 45; in South Carolina, 70; in Colorado, 45; and in Texas, 68 days. These figures may be left to speak their own message. They require no further comment. They have served their purpose if they have shown in a somewhat definite way this one difference between the rural and the city school of our day—the much longer term enjoyed by students in schools of the latter class.

6. The teacher. There is a marked difference between the teaching staff for our country schools and that required for the city schools. On this point it is as difficult to find data giving the conditions in large areas of our country as it was on the length of the school term in the different kinds of schools. This point is inadequately treated in most of the state school reports, and in the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education. The Committee of Twelve called attention to the lack of proper data on this subject, and we may

[illegible]

year. The number of teachers and 10,287 students, many of whom are of the minority groups of students, for many of whom the school has no experience, or have had very little experience. The school that the conditions are

about the same in Michigan as in New Jersey and New York.

In Maine 1,000 of the total corps of less than 7000 teachers begin their work each year without experience. Only 1,587 are graduates of a normal school. (76)

Of Iowa's army of nearly 30,000 teachers, 6,866 were licensed without previous experience, or with less than one year's experience. (77)

Missouri reports that less than 5 per cent. of her teachers hold state normal school certificates; 5 per cent. hold state certificates; and 90 per cent are certificated by local authorities. (78)

Of Pennsylvania's 30,000 teachers over 4,000 have had no experience. Of these 4,065, only 791 are found in city schools, although one third of the schools of the state are classed as "city schools." Nearly one-half of the teachers of the state hold the provisional certificate, the lowest grade of local certificate issued. (79) There are 7,490 state normal school graduates employed, of whom 5,930 are not teaching in city schools. (80) This is a better showing for normal school influence in rural communities than is usual in states whose school reports have been available during this study.

But to the lack of experience, of academical and professional training in teachers, must be added the low salaries usually paid in the rural schools. Early in the last century the general thought seemed to be that "anybody can teach school." This theory was soon discredited in the best cities and towns of our country, but it is the working hypothesis of far too many rural schoolboards and local authorities. This means that it is also the working hypothesis of the country people, for they create the local boards and authorities. A few facts on the salary question will suffice.

The average annual salary in the rural schools of Missouri is \$195.70; in the cities and towns it rises to \$488.30. (81) In Michigan the average monthly salary for male teachers in ungraded schools is \$29.45; in graded schools it is \$84.76. The corresponding figures for female teachers are \$26.99 and \$45.94. (82) In Wisconsin the average monthly salary for women in the ungraded schools is \$33.19; for men, \$50.93. For city schools it is \$43.78 for women, and \$97.62 for males, counting the city school term at nine and one-half months. (83) The Committee of Twelve has worked out a table of average monthly salaries of men and women teachers in the rural schools of thirty-four of our states. One ought to keep these figures in view while working over the statistical tables of our poorly indexed state school reports.

TABLE V

Average monthly salaries of teachers in rural schools. (84)

Males Females		Males Females	
Alabama	\$25 . . \$20	Missouri	\$40 . . \$34
Arkansas	33 . . 30	Montana	60 . . 45
California	67 . . 56	Nebraska	35 . . 30
Colorado	56 . . 45	Nevada	85 . . 60
Connecticut	30 . . 30	New Hampshire	30 . . 30
Delaware	35 . . 33	New York	37 . . 37
Illinois	30 . . 25	Ohio	35 . . 29
Indiana	40 . . 35	Pennsylvania	42 . . 33
Iowa	35 . . 30	Rhode Island	40 . . 36
Kansas	40 . . 32	South Carolina	30 . . 27
Kentucky	36 . . 34	South Dakota	36 . . 31
Louisiana	40 . . 33	Utah	53 . . 37
Maine	35 . . 22	Vermont	39 . . 27
Maryland	29 . . 29	Virginia	28 . . 25
Massachusetts	32 . . 26	West Virginia	36 . . 36
Michigan	29 . . 25	Wisconsin	46 . . 30
Minnesota	40 . . 31	Wyoming	45 . . 40

7. The per capita cost. In this item the rural and the urban school differ as much as in the other respects in which comparisons have been made. The total per capita cost for the ungraded schools of Michigan is \$11.79, based on the enrollment, while that of the graded schools is \$21.03, almost double. (85) For New York the corresponding figures are \$18.02 and \$35.44. (86) In Wisconsin the figures, based on the enrollment, are as follows: for country schools not under a superintendent, \$11.98; in city schools, \$19.10. (87) If in the northern and central parts of our country the per capita cost of education in the cities is almost twice as great as it is in the rural districts, the disproportion can only be still greater in the southern belt of states where the disparity is greater between the urban and the rural school term. It is not necessary to enlarge upon this item, but it is necessary to take it into account in any study of the rural school problem in our country.

8. Size of the rural school. The small enrollment to be found in so many of our rural schools is a great drawback in spite of the fact that it allows to each child enrolled a large share of the teacher's time and attention for instruction and assistance. There can accrue to the students of such a school none of those advantages which are due to emulation, *esprit du corps*, generous rivalry, and the sharp attrition of mind on mind, all factors of no small moment in determining the character and benefits of the urban school. There is nothing in

the little school to put a pupil at his best, to draw him out, to challenge him. If possible, moreover, the results are worse for the teacher than for the child. If the teacher is energetic, enthusiastic, spirited, even a small school will be inoculated with the same qualities. It is the rarest of teachers that can keep up work at high tension in an environment that challenges her so little as the small rural school.

Only a few precise facts are available on the size of rural schools. This is an item on which few of the state reports, so far as I have examined, give any data. It would seem that such data should be given in these reports, because of their practical bearing upon any solution of the rural school problem. In 1903 Iowa had 38 schools with a daily attendance of less than 5; 424, with less than 10; 1,072, with less than 15; 2,009, with less than 20; 2,553, with less than 25. Thus out of 9,487 rural schools in the state 6,096, or 65 per cent., have an average daily attendance of less than 25; and 3,546, or 37 per cent., an average daily attendance of less than 20. (88) Sixty-one per cent. of the schools of the state of Maine are rural schools, and the average enrollment in these is 27. (89) This means that a large number of the rural schools, as in Iowa, have an average daily attendance much below 20. Michigan, Indiana, Missouri, Nebraska and Kansas exhibit like conditions of rural school attendance, which need not be set forth in detail in this study. (90) It is claimed on high authority that three-fourths of the rural schools of Nebraska are too small for a vigorous school life, having an enrollment of from 1 to 20. (91)

9 Supervision. When compared with the city school, the rural school is sadly lacking in supervision. Probably no city in the United States, and certainly no city of any educational prominence, is without its superintendent, be his official title what it may. One of the four heads under which the Report of the Committee of Twelve treats the problem of the rural school, is *supervision*. This report points out that competent supervision has been one of the most effective means of improving the public schools, and then asserts that it has been enjoyed by the city schools alone; the rural school has been almost entirely untouched by the hand of the skilled supervisor. Only a few places inspired by an urban environment have brought their schools under trained supervision. These are forthwith to be classed as exceptional places. The greater number of the rural schools are left to their own devices, and to the youth, inexperience, and limited knowledge of the rural teacher. Some states provide manuals exhibiting in detail the course of study, making suggestions for the order and time allotment for the different subjects. In other states there

would seem to be nothing but the school law to outline the course that must be taught in order that the school may be a legal one, and therefore entitled to its portion of the state school funds or annual appropriation.

Thus the very schools and teachers that need supervision most have it least. From the beginning of the industrial era down to the present day, the importance of superintendence for every large industrial establishment has steadily increased. (92) To-day, as in 1850, expert supervision is taken as a matter of course in every manufactory, howsoever skilled the individual laborers may be.

If supervision is so necessary in great business undertakings, lest material wealth placed in industrial enterprises should prove profitless and the welfare of the country be imperiled, how much more is it necessary in education under present conditions, when it is not possible to secure at once a supply of properly educated and trained teachers? Is not the intellectual and moral welfare of the rising generation, which depends more or less upon the efficiency of present-day school instruction, as important as the material prosperity of those who are old enough to be influenced by "the effective desire of accumulation"? Of course the spirit in which the school supervisor works is not necessarily the same as that of the *entrepreneur*; for the latter has only too often assumed the attitude of a task-master. In either case the prime object is, to be sure, to increase the quantity and improve the quality of the work; but the school has already learned that the best way to achieve this is to improve the teacher herself. If the superintendent can sharpen her intelligence, stimulate her to undertake the right sort of reading, both general and professional, raise her ideal of her profession, and cause her to know more fully the child and the laws of his growth, bodily, mentally, morally, he will at the same time work improvement in his school. With these facts in mind, one can see the reasonableness of such a sweeping statement as that made by the Committee of Twelve. "There is no other agency in our school system that has done so much for the improvement of our schools in organization, and in methods of instruction and discipline, as the superintendency." And again: "The most competent superintendents have the best schools, and the cities noted for their excellence in school work have attained this pre-eminence through the medium of intelligent supervision." (93)

The annual or semiannual visit of a county superintendent or school commissioner is scarcely to be styled supervision, any more than the occasional visit of some large stockholder to the seat of an industry in which he is interested is

entitled to such rank. If a teacher's position and salary depended upon the reports of such visits, they might be termed inspection, but never supervision, unless one is willing to court criticism for his use of terms. In England, our county superintendents would be called school inspectors, at least so far as their duties of school visitations are concerned; and the professional welfare of the teachers would depend much more upon the character of the reports submitted by these officials than is the case with us.

The present situation for rural school supervision may be judged from the conditions that obtain in one of our large and wealthy states. In some counties of Pennsylvania it is impossible for the county superintendent to visit the schools oftener than once in two years. They are seldom lengthy visits, so that the relations set up between superintendent and teacher and pupil cannot be very intimate, life-giving, or inspirational. There are in Pennsylvania 2,545 school districts, viz., cities, boroughs, and townships. Of these 66 are cities and boroughs with separate superintendents. This leaves 2,479 townships. And there are only seven townships that have, according to the State Superintendent's printed list of superintendents, supervision other than that which can be given by the overtaxed county superintendent. (94)

Dr. Andrew S. Draper, Commissioner of Education, New York, affirms that the first great need of the ten thousand rural schools of his state is that of closer supervision. This is needed even before grading and larger enrollments. He says: "We all agree that very much of the life of the modern schools is in the supervision." (95) It appears from this address that there are 113 commissioners in the state, while it would require about 800 officers to provide adequate supervision for these rural schools. Besides all this it must be added that many of these commissioners are not experienced teachers or school men. So far, therefore, as supervision is concerned, the 10,000 rural schools of the state of New York must be classed in the same category as the 12,000 rural schools of the state of Pennsylvania—they are practically without that degree of oversight which would anywhere in the industrial world be termed *superintendence*.

CHAPTER V.

THE RURAL SCHOOL OF TO-DAY : AN INDUCTIVE STUDY

The material used in this chapter is derived chiefly from the answers to the questions which are given below. These answers came mostly from county superintendents, and officials of corresponding rank, although state superintendents sent data in some form or other to most of the questions. Often printed reports of more or less value, containing answers to some of the questions, were submitted. Questionnaire material was received from 55 county superintendents in fifteen states. In addition to these a few replies were received from supervisory officers of smaller districts than the county. Over 300 lists of questions were sent out. In the tables and discussion that follow 58 counties and smaller districts are represented. Out of some 40 lists sent to officials in the Southern states only five were answered,—one from Texas, and two each from Georgia and Florida. The highest percentage of returns were received from Pennsylvania and the North Central states. The explanation of this fact is not far to seek. The law of interest in persons is somewhat similar to the laws for light, heat, and sound intensities, which vary inversely as the square of the distance. In this case it is not greater interest, necessarily, in the problem as such.

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONS ON THE RURAL SCHOOL

MR. J. C. HOCKENBERRY,

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, CALIFORNIA, PENNSYLVANIA.

1. To what extent do the rural schools of your state, county, or district have supervision?
2. What proportion of your rural teachers have had training in schools of higher grade than those in which they teach?
3. Give course of study generally pursued in the rural schools of your state, county, or district. Printed course of study is preferred if it exhibits exactly what is done by years and recitation hours.
4. What is the method generally used in teaching (beginners) how to read in your rural schools?
5. What reading matter is used in your rural schools after the third school year? Can you give in detail?
6. What work is done in your schools in literature, science, and art? Can you outline in detail?
7. To what extent are libraries established in your rural schools? How secured, managed, etc.?
8. Are there any school collections of minerals, grains, insects, etc.? How managed and used?
9. What attention is paid to music, drawing, manual training, literary or debating societies?

10. What proportion of the rural schools of your county or district have a musical instrument? what instrument?
11. How many of your rural schools probably receive and study the weather map and report?
12. What has been done towards centralizing the rural schools of your county or district, with free transportation of school children?
13. Which has been the more potent agency in bringing about such changes, legislation or local initiative?
14. What uses are made of your rural school houses for such purposes as the Sunday-school, singing-school, Grange meetings, preaching, spelling-bees, lectures, Thanksgiving services, harvest-home meetings, neighborhood meetings, etc.?
15. (a) What proportion of your rural schools are in painted houses, with window curtains, window plants, or pictures of value?
(b) What part of them have sodded grounds, with brick, stone, or gravel walks, flower-beds, banks of shrubbery or shade trees?
16. How many township high schools have resulted from centralization of rural schools in your county or district?
17. What texts are used in these schools in arithmetic, grammar, spelling, history? Are these the choice of the teachers, probably?
18. How many parents' meetings were held last year in the rural schools of your county or district? How largely attended? Are parents generally interested?
19. (a) What are some of the strongest points in present day rural school work? (b) What some of the weakest?
20. (a) How many rural schools represented in your report?
(b) How many school children thus represented?

If you cannot take time to answer all these questions, kindly answer such as seem to be of special interest or value, add any matter you like, not particularly mentioned, and forward the sheets to me at your earliest convenience.

TABLE VI.—CERTAIN RURAL SCHOOL CONDITIONS

STATE AND COUNTY	Q. 1 Kind of Supervision	Q. 2 Per Cent. of Teachers educated wholly in rural schools	Q. 3, 4 Method of Teaching Reading	Q. 10 Schools having a musical instrument	Q. 11 Schools using weather map	Q. 13 To what changes for improvement are due	Q. 15 Painted school houses	Q. 15 Beautified grounds
Colquitt, Ga.	Co. Supr.	Almost none	Ch. and Pr.	None	None		A few	None
Newton, Ga.	Co. Supr.	25	W. and Alph.	10 per ct. org.	Several	loc. init.	30 per cent.	10 per cent.
Champaign, Ill.	Co. Supr.	5	W. and S.	75 per ct. org.	Very few	loc. init.	95 per cent.	95 per cent.
Ford, Ill.	Co. Supr.	5	W., S. and P.	25 per ct. org.	None		75 per cent.	80 per cent.
McLean, Ill.	Co. Supr.	25	Word	40 per ct. org.	Nearly all	loc. init.	Most	Some
Pope, Ill.	Co. Supr.	100	Word	10 per ct. org.	None		75 per cent.	Some
Vermilion, Ill.	Co. Supr.	50	Word	33 per ct. org.	Not reg.		90 per cent.	Some
DeJaware, Ind.	Co. Supr.	100	"Ward"	33 per ct. org.	None	loc. init.	Most	10 per cent.
Putnam, Ind.	Co. Supr.	5	W. and S.	1 per ct.	None	loc. init.	95 per cent.	95 per cent.
Boone, Ind.	Co. Supr.	2	Word	40 per ct. org.	None	loc. init.	All	Many
Tipton, Ind.	Co. Supr.	25	"Ward"	33 per ct. org.	None	Legislation	Nearly all	Many
Wayne, Ind.	Co. Supr.	2	"Ward"	95 per ct. org.	Very few	loc. init.	Nearly all	Many
Dubaque, Ia.	Co. Supr.	33	Different	Some organ			33 per cent.	All
Hamilton, Ia.	Co. Supr.	10	Different	Nearly all	All		All	None
Clay, Ky.	Co. Supr.	100	Word	None	None	loc. init.	None	None
Genesee, Mich.	Co. Supr.	None	Word	5 per ct. org.	20	leg. and othr.	All	Not m
Fillmore, Minn.	86 per ct. C. S.	None	S., W., P.	Some organ	None		All	None
Freeborn, Minn.	Co. Supr.	25	No one	10 per ct. org.	None		All	None
Morrison, Minn.	Co. Supr.	60	W. and S.	10 per ct. org.	None	loc. init.	75 per cent.	Nearl
Polk, Minn.	Co. Supr.	75	"Ward"	50 per ct. org.	Very few		100 p' cent.	Very
Camden, N. J.	80 per ct. C. S.	60	"Ward"	10 per ct. org.	None	loc. init.	All	Very
Hunterdon, N. J.	Gen'l'y C. S.	75	"Ward" etc.	10 per ct. org.	1 per cent.	Legislation	80 per cent.	5 per c.
Salem, N. J.	83 per ct. C. S.	65	W. and S.	66 per ct. org.	3 per cent.	loc. init.	100 p' cent.	50 per ce.
Somerset, N. J.	50 per ct. C. S.	5	W. and S.	None	None	loc. init.	Most	Many
Del. IC. D. N. Y.	Co. Com.	10	Phon.	10 per ct. org.	10 per cent.		All	Most
Herk Co. D. N. Y.	Co. Com.	5	Antiqd.	Very few	None	loc. init.	75 per cent.	25 per cent.
Steuben Co. D. N. Y.	Co. Com.	10		33 per ct. org.	None	loc. init.	All	None
Buffalo, Neb.	Co. Supr.	75	"Ward"	75 per ct. org.	Very few		All	None
Gage, Neb.	Co. Supr.	Almost none						

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

COUNTY and STATE	Q. 1. Kind of Supervision	Q. 2. Per cent. of Teachers educated wholly in rural schools	Q. 4. Method of Teaching Reading	Q. 10. Schools having a Musical Instrument	Q. 11. Schools using Weather Map	Q. 83. To what changes for improvement are due	Q. 15. Painted school houses	Q. 16. Beautified grounds
Otoe Neb.	Co. Supt.	25	W. and S.	A few organ	Likely none	Loc. i. and leg.	All	Some
Athens O.	84 per ct. C. S.	75	Don't know	Likely none	Few if any		Sadly defi.	Sadly deficient
Beaver Pa.	Co. Supt.	55	W. etc.	50 per cent.	None		Most	
Bucks Pa.	64 per ct. C. S.	None	W. and P.	50 per cent.	Few if any		All	33 per cent.
Columbia . . . Pa.	Co. Supt.	50	Pol. Ward	33 per ct. org.	Quite a no.	Loc. init.	All	Most
Erie Pa.	75 per ct. C. S.	5	Sallable	33 per ct. org.		Loc. init.	50 per cent.	
Fayette Pa.	74 per ct. C. S.	75	No one					
Green Pa.	Co. Supt.	40	W.	9 per ct. org.	None			
Juniata Pa.	Co. Supt.	10	W.	10 per ct. org.	None	Legislation	Most	Few
Lebanon Pa.	Co. Supt.	None	W. and S.	15 per ct. org.	5 per cent.	Legislation	All	Few
Lyscoming . . . Pa.	88 per ct. C. S.	None	W. and S.	33 per ct. org.	Very few	Legislation	Most	
Montgomery . . Pa.	85 per ct. C. S.	20	"Ward"	55 per cent.	Not many		65 per cent.	
Somerset Pa.	Co. Supt.	60	W.	25 per cent.	Very few		50 per cent.	
Venango Pa.	Co. Supt.	10	W. and P.	A few organs	Very few	Loc. i. and leg.	All	Some
Washington . . Pa.	97 per ct. C. S.	A large part	W.	Most organs	Few		90 per cent.	
Westm'reld . . Pa.	Co. Supt.	20	W.	A few organ.	3 schools		80 per cent.	Very few
Sumter S. C.	Co. Supt.	Nearly all	Mostly W.	3 p. c. 5 p. c. o.	None	Loc. init.	Defc.	Deficient
Cherokee Tex.	No Co. Supt.	80	W. and S.	A few organ.	None	Legislation	20 per cent.	None
Crawford . . . Wis.	Co. Supt.	33	W. and S.	2 per cent.				
Dane Wis.	Co. Supt.	1						
Eau Claire . . Wis.	Co. Supt.	10	W. and S.	25 per ct. org.	None	Loc. init.	All	Few
Grant Wis.	Co. Supt.	None		None	Very few		All	Many
Waukeisha . . Wis.	Co. Supt.	Almost none	W. and S.	Very few	Very few		All	All

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

COUNTY and STATE	Q. 16 Twp. H. S. Organized	Q. 18 Parents' Meetings Held	Q. 18 Attendance at Parents' Meetings	Q. 18 Interest of Parents	Q. 20 No. of Rural Schools Represented	Q. 20 No. of Rural School Children	Average Attendance
Colquitt . . . Ga.	None	A few	Poor	Little	35	3318	85
Newton . . . Ga.	7	None	Poor	Little	46	3500	76
Champaign . . Ill.	None	None			206	3200	15.5
Ford . . . Ill.	None	None			98	2300	23.5
Moline . . . Ill.	None	60	Fair	Little	246	6000	20.4
Pope . . . Ill.	None	None			66	6000	90.9
Vermilion . . Ill.	None	Several	Good		180	3000	16.6
DeLaWare . . Ind.	7	None	Good		180	5000	27.7
Putnam . . . Ind.	17	1 in ea. dis.	Good	Good	142	3000	21
Wayne . . . Ind.	12	In most dis.	Good	Good	97	3200	33
Hoone . . . Ind.	1	None			112	6071	54.2
Tippecanoe . . Ind.		None			136	3700	27.2
Dubuque . . . Ia.		None			127	3200	25.2
Hamilton . . . Ia.	None	None			135	2457	18.2
Clay . . . Ky.	None	None	None	None	100	6300	63
Genesee . . Mich.	None	None			146	4000	27.4
Millmore . . Minn.	None	One	Good	Little	176	5300	30
Freeborn . . Minn.	None	None			130	4100	31.5
Morrison . . Minn.	None	Very few			118	4908	41.6
Polk . . . Minn.	None	Several	Sometimes	Fair	203	6845	33.2
Salem . . . N. J.	None	6	Very good		62	5835	94
Somerset . . . N. J.	None	None			160	3200	20
Camden . . . N. J.	None	None			52	5512	106
Hunterdon . N. J.	None	None			87	7000	80.5
Herk. Co. D. N. Y.	None	20	Good	Good	90	4075	45.3
Dwl. Co. D. N. Y.	None	None			176	5400	28
Steub. Co. D. N. Y.	None	None			117	2000	17
Buffalo . . . N. Y.	None	None			108	5300	49
Carr . . . Neb.	None	None			159	10000	62.9

TABLE VI, CONTINUED

COUNTY and STATE	Q. 16 Twp. H. S. Organized	Q. 18 Parent's Meetings Held	Q. 18 Attendance at Parent's Meet.	Q. 18 Interest of Parents	Q. 20 No. of Rural Schools Represented	Q. 20 No. of Rural School Children	Average Attendance
Otoe Neb.	None	Several rallies		Fair	104	8000	76.9
Athens O.	None				180	2160	12.
Beaver Pa.	None				150	4434	29.6
Bucks Pa.	None	In every school	Good	Good	250	8895	34.8
Columbia Pa.	8	25			200	5000	25.
Erie Pa.		Some		Good	250	5000	20.
Fayette Pa.	5				428	17539	40.7
Green Pa.	None	80 per ct. schools			215	7000	32.6
Junata Pa.	None				95	3436	36.2
Lebanon Pa.	None	Only institutes			119	5000	42.
Lycoming Pa.	None	27	Crowded	Good	248	7665	30.9
Montgomery Pa.	None	6	Good	Good	345	13940	40.
Somerset Pa.	None	In most schools	Fair	Not Good	300	11540	38.5
Venango Pa.	None	20	Good	Good	240	10076	42.
Washington Pa.	None	none		Good	400	11086	27.7
Westm rel'd Pa.	None	In most schools		Not Good	491	20749	42.3
Sumter S. C.	4	none		Not Good	80	6000	75.
Cherokee Tex.	None	none		Not Good	148	7100	48.
Crawford Wis.	1	none			120	3752	31.3
Dane Wis.		none			120	7000	58.3
Eau Claire Wis.	None	none			80	3000	37.5
Grant Wis.	None	Few		Good	200	12880	64.9
Waukesha Wis.	None	24			112	8000	71.4
					8668	321174	37.1

Notes explanatory of *Table VI*. The questions in the table are so numbered as to correspond with the numbers in the list, "Q." standing for question. The reports from New York do not give data from the whole county, but from the commissioner district indicated by the characters 1 C. D., which means first commissioner district in the given county. The expressions in the column marked Q. 4 may require a word of explanation. W.—word method; "Ward"—ward method, the method by Superintendent Ward; S.—sentence method; P—phonetic method. In column marked Q. 1, C. S.—county superintendent. The abbreviations rendered necessary by the exigencies of an over-filled table are supposed to be obvious.

The answers in column marked Q. 13 are not so definite as they might be if more space were available for column headings. The question asks which is the more powerful agency in affecting such changes as are made to improve the rural school. Are they stimulated more by legislation of a mandatory character or by special appropriations, or by the public opinion of the neighborhood and the consequent local initiative? The tabular answers will be quite intelligible in the light of this word of explanation, although it is not claimed that the data represent anything more than the opinion of the officials making the returns.

The nature of question 15 is such that it would require more than two columns properly to present the facts as they ought to be presented for a satisfactory study of the condition of the rural school building and its grounds. About all that the two columns devoted to this item can be expected to do is to establish how general is a certain type of rural schoolhouse and of school grounds. The data point to a condition; they are not supposed to represent very precise figures.

The intention of question 18, third column, is to ascertain the interest parents take in parents' meetings when they are held. It would be impossible to determine how generally the same interpretation was put upon it by the correspondents. But the most marked discrepancies occur in the answers to question 20, both parts. E.g., Colquitt Co., Ga., reports 3318 rural school children in 35 rural schools; while Champaign Co. Ill., reports 3200 children in 208 rural schools, and Pope Co., Ill., 6000 children in 66 rural schools. This means either that the enrollment per school in the first county is 96, and that in the two Illinois counties it is 15 and 91 respectively, or that there is a discrepancy in the answers. County superintendents are more likely to know at a glance how many rural schools there are in their respective counties than how many children there are in these same rural schools. Almost none of the state school reports which I have examined give the

rural school enrollment as distinct from that of the whole county. If this theory be accepted it explains the difficulty, at least for a number of cases. But the fact still remains that the rural school enrollment varies greatly in different parts of the country, and even in different parts of the same state. The slightest suspicion of a discrepancy in the answers makes the figures of less value than if these represented exact facts and conditions. In the case of the counties of Pennsylvania the reports may be taken as exact, having been calculated carefully from the State Superintendent's Report from the several counties represented in the table, although no rigid classification of schools into rural and urban, or into graded and ungraded, is attempted in the Pennsylvania School Report. By counting all the schools having more than one teacher as graded, the sum of children enrolled in all other schools gives the numbers reported in the columns for these counties. Greater definiteness in these respects would render the state reports far more valuable for the exact study of school conditions in the different kinds of schools.

Questionnaire material not easy to present in tabular form will be given in the exact language of the correspondent as far as practicable. This material comprises the answers to questions 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 14, 17 and 19, or half the entire list.

Question 3. Give course of study generally pursued in the rural schools of your county or district. Printed course is preferred if it exhibits exactly what is done by years and recitation hours. The answers to this question may well be prefaced with a table to show what the several states recommend or require in all schools in addition to the Three R's.

TABLE VII. AUTHORIZED COURSE OF STUDY
IN THE SEVERAL STATES.

State	The Three R's	(ewt.	Eng.	U. S. Hist.	Phys. and Hys.	Gov.	Dr.	Mod.	Mem.	Agri.	House- hold Arts	Phys. Tr.	Bk.-K.	Nature Study	Art	M. Tr.
Cal.	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+			+			
Col.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"									
Ill.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	+	"	"	+			+		
Iod.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"		+		+		
Io.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"				"		
Kan.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"				"		
Mich.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"	"		
Neb.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"			"	"		
N. Y.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"				"		
O.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"									
Pa.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"									
S. O.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"					"		
W. Va.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"				"		
W. Va.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"				"		
W. Va.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"				"		
W. Va.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"		"	"				"		

This table will serve only for an introductory glance, and the courses authorized or required in the several states will have to be taken up in order. Some additional data from counties will follow. The plus sign + shows that the subject is mentioned or required.

Georgia. The state school report outlines the work required in the common schools, stating what text-books are used throughout the state, and the exact number of pages to be covered each year. The uniform text-book law requires that books shall be used at least five years. Some optional work is recommended, and a little work is suggested in civics and agriculture. In agriculture these topics are suggested: Soils, rocks, minerals, germination of seeds, varieties and growth of trees; habits and treatment of animals; fruit trees, budding, grafting; insects of field, orchard, and garden; pupils should present models and drawings of farm implements. For the work in the sixth grade a regular text is named, while for that of the seventh grade it is planned that experiments in physics and chemistry shall be made with the students, these experiments having as far as possible a bearing upon agriculture. (96)

Illinois. It is planned that music, drawing, morals and manners shall be taught in the first and second grades under the heading, "general exercises." In the next six school years the general exercises comprise music, drawing, morals and manners, agriculture, and household arts. Geography is added in the fourth year, and history in the sixth; grammar in the seventh, and civics in the eighth. In vocal music two or three songs are learned by rote each month and sung to a musical accompaniment where there is an instrument. It is taken for granted that "all teachers do something in music." The course in drawing is thorough, definite, objective, and need not be further discussed. Under the head of morals and manners very definite work is contemplated. Such topics as courage, humility self-respect, self-control, prudence, good name, good manners, health, temperance, evil habits, bad language, evil speaking, industry, economy, patriotism and civil duties are discussed, outlined, and applied to the problems of daily life. Each topic of the list gives rise to about ten subtopics. E. g., *Civil Duties*.—1. They are a division of social duties. 2. Government is necessary. 3. It requires law. 4. A good citizen obeys the law. 5. He tries to have good laws. He aids the enforcement of law. 7. Fidelity in office—bribery. 8. Honor in taking oath—perjury. 9. Duty involved in the ballot—buying and selling votes. 10. Dignity and honor of citizenship, etc.

As an illustration of the work in agriculture the suggestions for the eighth month of the sixth school year may be chosen. 1. Test the vitality of the corn saved for planting. 2. Start the bean and make careful observations of it for five days. How many toes has a chicken? a dog? a horse? a pig? a sheep? 4. Will pigs eat hay? meat? ashes? Write the biography of some successful stock breeder or feeder in your neighborhood. 6. Which will eat more in proportion to its weight, a hog or a horse? Which will gain more in proportion to the feed eaten, a young hog or an older one? Try it. 7. What fruits and vegetables are grown in glass houses for market? 8. Collect seed corn from at least two farms. . . . Plant on moistened sand between two plates; keep warm and moist, and after seven days count the number of sprouted grains, and calculate the percentage of germination. Plant a few grains in balls of cotton kept in a glass of water. Watch growth of roots. 9. Read L. H. Bailey's *Plant Breeding*. 10. Take an inventory of live stock, its kind, number, and value on the largest farm of the school district and on the one which you live. Some interesting definitions are given in this connection. *Vitality*—the power to grow; *plantlet*—a very young plant; *cotyledons*—the first leaf or pair of leaves; *stock*—horses, cattle, sheep, pigs, or other large animals kept on the farm; *biography*—the story of a person's life; *corn*—in America the maize, or Indian corn; in England, any grain, or crop; *greenhouse*—a glass house in which flowers or vegetables are grown; *fruit*—to the botanist, any seed; to the horticulturalist, the eatable portion that surrounds the seed.

In household arts, or domestic economy, suggestive topics are mentioned in the course of study, such as *sewing*, the kinds of stitches; *water*, sources and kinds, waste of soap in hard water, effect of ammonia or soda in water, use for personal cleanliness and for laundering, for cooking to soften cell walls of vegetables, and for drinking purposes. What kind is safe for drinking? *Air*, composition and properties. Uses of thermometer and barometer. Give illustration with such apparatus as is at hand. *Food*—What is food? Show classes of food principles in milk, as cream-fat, sugar of milk, and protein. The gluten of flour and wheat. Lean meat is protein. Cooking should aid digestion, without which food can not build up the tissues of the body. *Vegetables*—different parts of plants used as foods. Seeds, peas, beans; roots, carrots, turnips; bulbs: onions; tubers: potatoes; shoots: asparagus; stalks: celery, rhubarb; leaves: cabbage, lettuce; flowers: cauliflower; fruit: cucumber, tomato. Value of vegetables and fruits in the diet to add certain acids and animal matters to the foods. *Bread*. The history of bread making, thorough

mixing, kneading, raising, baking. Have children bake small loaves and bring to school. *Meats.* Kinds of animals supplying meats; names of meats, names and character of different cuts; cost and food values of different kinds and cuts of meats. (97)

Kansas. Several subjects are to be taught only incidentally, as calisthenics, music, drawing, current events, and ethics. These are to be taught in connection with the opening, or general exercises, and it is provided that not over fifteen minutes are to be taken for all these exercises each day. It is recommended that music shall be taught once a week in connection with the opening exercises, and that the teacher shall encourage the pupils to draw, and set a good example herself. No concrete material is suggested for the work of ethics. (98)

Michigan. The authorized course of study for this state gives valuable suggestions on the teaching of morals and manners, calisthenics, and memory gems. "Good manners properly taught the child react upon his heart and produce a genuine desire to give others no discomfort." An excellent outline suggests what one's conduct should be at school, at home, at the table, another's home, at church, at entertainments, at the store, on the street, and in traveling. Under calisthenics are indicated breathing, development, relaxing, foot, swinging, bending, and movement exercises of an entirely practical nature in the hands of any teacher of average intelligence and preparation. The memory gems are not a mixed jumble, but are so chosen and arranged as to throw light upon subjects of the greatest value to the student. The subjects are books, education, habits, perseverance, kindness, honesty, bravery, friendship, patriotism, miscellaneous, for the little ones. (99)

Ohio and Pennsylvania. These states give no directions on the course of study for the common schools other than the brief statement in the school law which names the "branches" of study that must be taught in all schools.

South Carolina. Music, drawing, and civics are mentioned as a part of the course. Music is to be given in connection with the opening exercises. Civics is taught only in the sixth grade. Drawing is avowedly a new study, but is claimed to be of great importance. Teachers should encourage the children, and do the best they can, even if they know little about the subject themselves. As an entering wedge for the later introduction of systematic work in manual training it is suggested that teachers should have the smaller children cut and fold paper so as to learn the simpler geometrical figures, and other simple forms. (100)

West Virginia. The only subjects in addition to the usual common school subjects are book-keeping for the ninth grade, civics for the eighth grade, and moral training which is provided for incidentally. These virtues should be exemplified and established in the lives of the children, and their corresponding vices corrected by building up inhibiting tendencies and habits.

VIRTUES.	VICES
Honesty	Dishonesty
Truthfulness	Falseity
Diligence.	Idleness
Politeness	Rudeness
Regularity	Irregularity
Obedience	Disobedience
Purity	Obscenity
Respect	Disrespect
Self-control	Lawlessness
Reverence.	Profanity
Neatness	Disorder
Candor	Deceit

Nature study and observation are marked for the first three years, until the sciences of geography and physiology are introduced. A tentative course in agriculture is suggested, and it is identical with that subject as outlined for the state of Illinois. (101)

Further data and comment from school officials.

Fillmore Co., Minn. "The rural schools as they now are need no course of study. A competent teacher needs no course of study for these little schools and an incompetent one could not use one if she had it."

Polk Co., Minn. "All the common English branches are taught in our rural schools." The counties of *Buffalo, Gage, and Otoe, Nebraska*, use the Illinois course of study.

Athens Co., O. "Have no data."

Bucks, Greene, and Lebanon counties, Pa., have separate printed courses.

Beaver, Venango, and Westmoreland counties, Pa., report "no course."

Columbia Co., Pa., follows the Illinois course "strictly."

Lycoming Co., Pa., has a course in preparation.

Juniata and Somerset counties, Pa., use the Berkey course.

Washington Co., Pa., "we have a course of study, but it is difficult to get the teachers to follow it."

Question 5. What reading matter is used in your rural schools after the third school year? Can you answer in detail?

In *Georgia* a fourth and a fifth reader are used in these grades followed by a text on state history and then one on civil government. In all these grades supplementary reading

is "optional." (96) In *Illinois* it is provided that prescribed third, fourth, and fifth readers shall be used in the fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth school years. As much "additional reading" as can be brought into "alliance" with other subjects to enlarge and enrich them, is recommended. This can be done in such studies as history, geography, literature, and science. Some of this material for the fourth year is: *Hiawatha*, *Arabian Nights*, *Alice in Wonderland*, *Wonderbook*, *Water Babies*. In the fifth year: *Legend of Sleepy Hollow*, *Rip Van Winkle*, *Voyage to Lilliput*, *King of the Golden River*, *Tanglewood Tales*, *Pilgrim's Progress*, *A Dog of Flanders*. In the sixth year: *Snow-Bound*, *Miles Standish*, *Story of the Iliad*, *McMurry's William Tell*, *Lays of Ancient Rome*, *Robinson Crusoe*. In the seventh year: *Sohrab and Rustum*, *Lady of the Lake*, *Stories of King Arthur's Court*, *Evangeline*, *Birds and Bees*, *Tales from Shakespeare*, *The Story of the Aeneid*. In the eighth year: *Vision of Sir Launfal*, *Lincoln's Gettysburg Address*, *Fortune of the Republic*, *Ivanhoe*, *Burke's American Orations*, *Julius Caesar* and *the Merchant of Venice*, *the Bunker Hill Orations*. (97)

In *Iowa* readers are to be used as in the case of *Illinois*. It is suggested that from fifteen to eighteen pages of matter be read each month in the fourth year; from 20 to 25 pages, each month in the fifth year; about 25 pages per month in the sixth year. In the seventh year there is a tendency to place greater emphasis upon classics at the expense of the reader. Hitherto supplementary reading is urged but not outlined. *Evangeline*, *Miles Standish*, *Sella*, *Rab and his Friends*, *Peasant and Prince*, and *the Vision of Sir Launfal* are suggested for reading in the seventh year. The fifth reader is continued into the eighth school year and English and American classics are added, but what ones are not specified. It is presumable that the eighth grade has the same reading as the seventh, for these two grades are to recite together. This plan would involve the choice of new material each year or an uninteresting repetition in the eighth year of all the reading matter studied in the seventh. (102)

In *Kansas* the work in reading follows the reader plan very strictly. Appleton's Readers are used, and the work is planned out definitely by pages and months. Schools having an eight-months term are to use *Hiawatha*. In the seventh month of the fifth year the *Miraculous Pitcher* is to be read. In the third month of the seventh year *The Great Stone Face* is to be gotten from the school library and read. (103) *Michigan* continues the use of readers through the entire eight grades. The "systematic study of classics may now be commenced"—in the sixth year. These classics, while not

the same as those named in the Illinois course of study, are of the same character, and need not be given here. The study of classics should increase towards the eighth grade and the work in the reader should decrease. (104) In *New York* the reader plan is followed except that in the seventh year "choice selections from standard authors" may be substituted for the fifth reader. Classic literature is read in the eighth year. In the fourth, fifth, and sixth years supplementary, or much supplementary reading is a part of the scheduled work in reading, but no specified suggestions are made as to what the selections or classics shall be. (105) *South Carolina* follows the reader plan, but adds supplementary matter. In the fourth year, Grimme's Household Tales, Wonder Book, Scudder's Book of Legends. In the fifth year, King of the Golden River, Selections from Longfellow, Arabian Nights. In the sixth year, Rab and his Friends, Christmas Carol by Dickens, Robinson Crusoe, Hiawatha. In the seventh year, Sleepy Hollow, Rip Van Winkle, Tales from Shakespeare, Evangeline, Silas Marner. In the eighth year, Selections from Holmes, Enoch Arden, Merchant of Venice. It should be noted that many of these are condensations or otherwise incomplete editions of the works mentioned, particularly the longer works, as most of them are chosen from the Maynard Series or the Riverside Series. (100)

West Virginia follows the reader plan, making a good deal of the biographies of the authors whose writings are represented in the selections contained in the readers. The suggestion is made that in the eighth year "shorter classics, such as Scott's Lady of the Lake should be employed more generally." "Develop taste for good literature and literary taste." (101) In *Wisconsin* the reader plan is in vogue although the superior value of literary wholes, or classics, is pointed out in outlining the reading work for the seventh, eighth, and ninth school years. No specific directions are given as to what classics should be read. (106) In Clay Co., Ky., and the eastern counties generally, "text-books only are used." In Salem Co., N. J., supplementary readers are used. In Somerset Co., N. J., "little more than the ordinary readers are used, I am sorry to say." In Camden Co., N. J., a committee of teachers working with the county superintendent has outlined a course in reading which includes whole classics as well as the usual readers. But it is a change which can not be made at once, for besides the conservatism of the teachers, there is some difficulty encountered in inducing the district boards to make the appropriation necessary to secure the classics. Gage Co., Neb., uses almost any of the standard readers. In Beaver and Juniata counties,

Pa., "very little reading matter is used beyond the reading texts." In Bucks Co., Pa., supplementary readers along the lines of nature, literature, and history are used. "The supply of supplementary matter depends upon the liberality of the school board." In Columbia Co., Pa., *Snow-Bound*, *Sketch Book*, *Evangeline*, *Hayne's Speech*, and *Webster's Reply* are mentioned for such work. In Lebanon Co., Pa., classics are read in the upper grades only. In Lycoming Co., Pa., "most schools use readers only. A few use such classics as *Evangeline* and *Enoch Arden* in the upper grades." Washington Co., Pa., reports—"the only source of supplementary reading is probably the small school library to be found in most of the rural schools." Crawford Co., Wis., writes—"chiefly some standard reader." Eau Claire Co., Wis., writes—"one set of standard readers and some supplementary reading when one can get it, in English classics." Waukesha Co., Wis., plans that *Snow-Bound*, *Evangeline*, *Eugene Field's Poems*, *Miles Standish*, *Enoch Arden*, and many other classics shall be read.

CHAPTER VI.

THE RURAL SCHOOL OF TODAY AN INDUCTIVE STUDY

(Continued.)

Question 6. What work is done in your schools in literature, science, and art? This question is partially answered in connection with question 5, and also in Table VII, under the heading of "supplementary reading," and "art," respectively. See also the item "drawing" in the table referred to. Little else can be gotten out of the answers to the list of questions that were sent out in so far as these questions refer to the subject of literature, properly so named. But there is one set of returns that contained such a systematic plan for memory work in literature that it may be brought into the study more properly at this point than at any other. As the plan provides for more than memory work, and is even termed "literature" in the course of study, I shall be warranted in giving it in some detail. It is quite an elaborate plan and has involved some pains to work it out. It is divided into reading to the children, reading by the children, and committing to memory certain short poems and prose selections. Not a day is to pass without the recital of some piece committed to memory. No day is without attention to the learning of some new piece. It is worth while to give the names of these memory selections in full. For the first year they are: Mary's Lamb, Watt's Busy Bee, Taylor's Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star, Tennyson's Little Birdie, Keble's All Things Bright and Beautiful, Stevenson's Land of Nod, Miller's The Bluebird, Blake's The Lamb, America, by Smith, Longfellow's Snowflakes (selections), Shakespeare's Ariel's Song, Field's Little Boy Blue, Coleridge's Answer to a Child's Question. For the second year the list runs; Tennyson's Sweet and Low, Stevenson's Where Go the Boats, Blake's Piper and Child, Field's Japanese Lullaby, Longfellow's Gently Swinging to and Fro, Ingelow's Seven Times One are Seven, Thaxter's Spring, Longfellow's Daybreak, Lowell's The Fountain, Browning's A Child's Thought of God, Shakespeare's Over Hill, Over Dale. In the third year: Houghton's Lady Moon, Tennyson's Bugle Song, Longfellow's Arrow and the Song, Lowell's The First Snowfall, Hood's I Remember, Field's Dutch Lullaby, Tennyson's Flower in the Crannied Wall, Whittier's Barefoot Boy, Emerson's Mountain and the Squirrel, Shakespeare's Hark! Hark! The Lark. This is as far as the ungraded work goes in this school district, but this memory work is outlined for the whole remaining nine grades of the public school course in precisely the same definite, exact way. The

are as well chosen as those which are given above for the first three grades. They increase in difficulty and may also in length. The teachers are held responsible for repeating in each grade the selections previously committed. This gives an increasing quantity of the best literature to draw upon and use for the enrichment of every phase of school work. The average number learned each year is ten, so that the entire course would represent 120 choice selections thoroughly learned and held at instant command. This is not idealistic, but practical, as every one familiar with the laws and span of memory well knows. (107)

TABLE VIII LIBRARIES IN RURAL SCHOOLS

COUNTY and STATE	No. of Rural Schools with Libraries	Established and Supported by	Managed by	Number of Volumes	Number of Rural Schools
Colquitt . . . Ga.	A No. of cir.	School boards	Teach'rs & pupils	2000	35
Newton . . . Ga.	40 circle centrs.	Entertainments, suppers			46
Champaign . . Ill.	Nearly all	Entertainments	Teachers		206
Ford . . . Ill.	78	Entertainments	Usual way		96
Leelan . . . Ill.	220	Teachers and pupils			245
Pope . . . Ill.	Nearly all	Socials, entertainments			66
Vermillion . . Ill.	162	Schl. bds. entrmnts. etc.			180
Winnebago . . Ill.	107	Schl. bds. entrmnts. etc.	Teacher	10938	116
Boone . . . Ind.	67				112
Delaware . . Ind.	Almost none				180
Putnam . . . Ind.	Most	Various ways			142
Typeeancee . Ind.	Nearly every school	has the State Young Peoples' Reading Circle			
Wayne . . . Ind.	Some books in every school :	bought by boards of education			127
Dubuque . . . Ia.	127	State and local aid	Under boards		135
Hamilton . . . Ia.	135	Own 1 or 2 doz. books	Under boards		
Clay . . . Ky.	A few districts	County funds	Teacher		146
Genesee . . Mich.	73	Local and state funds	Teacher		176
Fillmore . . Minn.	150	Local and state funds	Teacher		130
Freeborn . . Minn.	100	State and local funds	Librarian		118
Morrison . . Minn.	59	Local and state funds	Teacher		203
Folk . . . Minn.	152	Local aided by state	Teach'rs & board		52
Camden . . N.J.	39	Local aided by state	Under board		85
Hunterdon . N.J.	76	Local aided by state	Under board		62
Salem . . . N.J.	37	Local aided by state	Under board		160
Somerset . . N.J.	142	Local aided by state	Under board		168
Dela. I C. D. N.Y.	89	School and state			90
Herk. I C. D. N.Y.	87	School and state			117
Steuben I C. D. N.Y.	58	District			108
Buffalo . . . Neb.	21	Entertainments	Teach'rs & board		159
Gage . . . Neb.	80				

TABLE VIII CONTINUED

COUNTY and STATE	No. of Rural Schools with Libraries	Established and Supported by	Managed by	Number of Volumes	Number of Rural Schools
Otoe Neb.	69	Entertainments	Teacher	9596	104
Athens O.	Very few	Voluntarily			180
Beaver Pa.	A few	Voluntarily			150
Berks Pa.	263	Local effort			360
Bucks Pa.	Rather general	Have circulating plan with 50 centers			250
Columbia Pa.	Most of the schools have a sort of Library	No libraries in the rural schools			200
Erie Pa.	24	Entertainments, etc.			250
Green Pa.	120	Entertainments, etc.			215
Lebanon Pa.	Very few schools do not have a library				119
Lycoming Pa.	Nearly all				240
Montgomery Pa.	Most of the schools have small ones				345
Somerset Pa.	A great many have libraries				300
Venango Pa.	40	Local, county, and state			240
Washington Pa.	But few				336
Westmoreland Pa.	120				491
Sumter S.C.	80				80
Cherokee Tex.	120	State			148
Crawford Wis.	80	State			120
Dane Wis.	200	State			120
Eau Claire Wis.	112	State			80
Grant Wis.		State			200
Waukesha Wis.					112

In *Illinois* there are 11751 school districts, and all but 3178 have libraries. They are secured in part by the directors from school funds, and in part by school entertainments. In *Georgia* there are 110 public school libraries in school districts not under local school laws, viz; In county schools, with nearly 51000 volumes valued at over \$32000. "We have no public school funds for libraries. They are secured by donations," *Kansas* reports that "there is generally a small library in these schools." The school law provides that school districts may vote a library tax of $\frac{1}{2}$ mill to 2 mills on the dollar, depending upon the assessed valuation of the district. This permissive law has been in vogue since 1876. There is also a traveling libraries law in this state, dating from 1899, and providing for the establishment of a traveling libraries commission. According to the regulations adopted by this responsible commission it is possible for any local library, school district, reading club, literary society or similar organization upon the payment of a fee of two dollars to obtain the loan of a traveling library of 50 books upon lines specified. This lot of books may be retained for use six months, or longer upon payment of a renewal fee of 25 cent. The lot may be returned and another gotten as often as is desired upon payment of an additional fee of two dollars to defray charges for transmission to and from the centre. In the second biennial report of the Commission it is claimed that the traveling library is no longer an experiment, but an established, growing institution of the state. It is managed very economically. The appropriation of \$1000 per year at first was soon increased to \$4000 by a later legislature. At the end of 1902, the Commission had on hands 216 cases, and had in different parts of the state, 183 lots of 50 books each, and had over 10000 books for use in its department. The total circulation of the traveling libraries was calculated to be 51900 in two years on the supposition that each case has 30 regular readers. The lots had been sent to 94 counties, as many as eight having been sent to the same locality. (108)

South Carolina. "About 400 have been established in the past six months." The law providing that when the friends and patrons of a free public school shall have raised ten dollars by subscription for a school library, the state and the county shall each furnish a like amount, to be spent in the purchase of books for such a library, was passed in 1904. As not more than twelve schools in any one county can secure this aid in one year, it is to be concluded that general interest is manifest in the establishment of these small school libraries in this state. A local company is under bond to furnish the books

publicly printed prices, so as to avoid all
tion. The list of books recommended by
mainly of the standard type and comprises
es. These libraries are under the control of
ands who must observe directions and regulations
the state board of education. (109)

Virginia reports that "there are in the public
aries of the state a total of 38189 volumes—an
: but one book for every nine children of school age.
great proportion of these books is stored in the librar-
owns and cities, it is plain that the mass of rural school
s are absolutely without a book to read outside of the
ity supply of necessary text-books. And when it is re-
mbered that the vast majority of the pupils * * * are not
ly without libraries in school, but absolutely out of reach of
libraries of any kind, and even out of reach of book stores or
news agencies, the seriousness of the situation becomes ap-
parent." (110)

Michigan reports that 4,000 out of the 7,000 school dis-
tricts maintain libraries.

Some of the states have laws giving encouragement to
the school library. New Jersey has a law providing that to
every school raising \$10 for this purpose the state shall give
\$20 when the library is founded and \$10 each year thereafter
in support of the library if a like amount is raised by the
school. (111) The method generally pursued is to get up an
entertainment. If all or a part of this money should be used
for the purpose of scientific apparatus the state makes no ob-
jections. The widest freedom is allowed in the selection of
the books for the library. A list is printed by the state
board, but many books are bought that are not named in this
list. The general result of such a law may be easily seen in
the statistics of Table VIII, where it appears that from 75 to 90
percent., and above, of the rural schools of this state have
established school libraries. Other states having good school
library laws have already been named.

*Question 8. Are there any school collections of minerals,
grains, insects, etc.? How managed and used?* As the build-
ing up of such collections by the plan of co-operation between
teacher, pupil, and parent is so valuable in arousing interest
in the ordinary school work, in reducing to a minimum the
difficulties of discipline, in arousing and fostering motor
activities in all the members of the school, the prevalence of
such collections should be investigated as one of the criteria
of the rural school. The results of this study will not be so
encouraging as were those concerning the use of supplemen-
tary reading and rural school libraries.

Of the 55 counties in fourteen states from which answers were received sixteen report no collections, 27 counties report collections in a few schools, six contain no data, five report collections in few if any, while one reports that in 40 percent of the rural schools collections are found. A few of the more significant answers may be given.

"A few have collections of grains and insects. Managed by the teacher and used in connection with geography." "Here and there * * * as the teacher may have interest." "Not many." "Depends upon teacher. Used as subjects of compositions." "A few. Collected and cared for by teacher and pupils. Explained and talked about in general exercises." "In a few of the schools there are fine collections well displayed and generally used." "A few made by interested teachers and their pupils." One county reports that a few of the schools had secured the loan of some state museums of this character through voluntary local effort of pupils and teacher.

Question 9. What attention is paid to drawing, music, manual training, literary or debating societies? Table VII exhibits what the state contemplates in the authorized course of study so far as drawing, vocal music, and manual training are concerned. It remains to state to what extent literary or debating societies are held in the public schools. Some of the characteristic replies from state departments are: "Increase in each of these, but room for great improvement." "No data"—on these points in a state having nearly 30,000 teachers. "Not so much as should be; only in towns and cities." The answers from the counties may be given thus:

Number of counties reporting on the question	56
"Do not have either,"	23
"Have very few,"	9
"Have practically none,"	4
"Have both generally,"	3
"Have only in high schools,"	3
"Have several literary societies,"	2
Dodged the question,	2
"Many have literary societies,"	1
"Depends upon the teacher,"	1
"A half dozen literary societies in the county,	1
"In twenty districts,"	1
"A number have debating societies,"	1
"Some townships have literary and debating societies,"	1
"All have literary; not so many have debating societies,"	1
"A good many,"	1
"Very few except where normal trained teachers are in charge,"	1

Corresponding data might be given from the townships that have furnished answers, but these data would not change the proportions. If one were willing to hazard a mere estimate

he would say that probably ten per cent. of the rural schools of our more progressive states have literary and debating societies. This is given only as an estimate, and the purpose is only to call attention sharply to a condition of affairs which is altogether too common in these schools.

Questions 10 and 11 on the use of a musical instrument and the weather map and report, respectively, may be passed over very briefly. As a great painter in planning a master piece uses a number of relatively simple and unimportant elements and motives that he may enhance the impression that he seeks to make, so must the student of a school system take into account many elements and features of that system, no matter how unimportant they may seem to the layman, for the final evaluation of that school system. The rural school is no exception to this rule. Any proper evaluation of it as an institution will require that many features be taken into consideration. This study is based upon a very large number of these seemingly unimportant, but really very significant, features. Their importance is evident if they are taken in their broad connections, and as indicating just what the children do in a day, or in any other given time, in the school or in preparation for school. The facts are to be gathered from the proper item in table VI.

Question 12. What has been done towards centralizing the rural schools of your county or district, with free transportation of children? And Supplementary Questionnaire. So far as Table VI is able to do so it gives the facts received in response to the first questionnaire. Table IX gives the facts contained in the answers to the supplementary questionnaire. This questionnaire was sent out only to state superintendents. Answers were received from 37 of the states. The items upon which it was sought to gain information in this latter list will be indicated at once. "1. Have you a state law encouraging the consolidation of rural schools and permitting the transportation of pupils at public expense? 2. To what extent has consolidation with free transportation been adopted among the rural schools of your state? 3. In what ways is consolidation encouraged, if at all? 4. Is consolidation generally regarded as a success? 5. Which is the more powerful means of improving the rural schools, state encouragement in the form of special appropriation, or agitation and local initiative?"

THE RURAL SCHOOL IN THE UNITED STATES

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TABLE IX. CONSOLIDATION AND FREE TRANSPORTATION IN THE SEVERAL STATES.

STATE	LAW (a) encouraging consolidation, and (b) permitting free transportation	To what extent it has been utilized	In what other ways consolidation and free transportation are encouraged	Is it generally regarded as a success?	Which is the stronger agency, local encouragement or special appropriation?
Ark. . .	None	Not at all	Mentioned in school report		Local opinion
Cal. . .	Both	No sentiment for it			We have both
Del. . .	None	In nearly every county	Urged for best districts	Mostly, yes	Appropriation at first
Fla. . .	Both	Nearly 20 counties	Influence of State Department	Yes	Local opinion
Ga. . .	None	In several districts	Addresses, circles, etc.	Where roads allow	Both
Idaho . .	None	Great many counties	State, and county officials	Where roads allow	Agit. and local initiative
Ind. . .	Virtually, yes	63 consolidated schools	School officers and Grange	Where fairly tried	Local initiative etc.
Iowa . .	Both	9 schools in 5 counties	State and county officials	By officials	Both; Local initiative first
Kansas .	Both	Very few	State and county officials	Unqualifiedly	Local initiative
Md. . .	Both	6 consolidated districts	State and county officials	Yes	Local initiative, but slow
Mich. .	Both since 1903	10 consolidated districts	State and county officials	Yes	Local initiative
Minn. .	Both	Not at all			
Mo. . .	Both	Largely and increasing			
Mont. .	None				
Nevada .	Both				
N. H. .	Both				
N. M. .	None				
N. Y. .	Both				
N. C. .	(a) Yes; (b) No	A few	No direct encouragement	Yes	Appropriation and local init.
N. D. .	(a) Yes; (b) No	To a limited extent	By the teachers	So far as tried	Not sure
Okla. .	Both since 1905	Not at all yet	Various ways	So far as tried	Agit. and local initiative
Oregon .	Both	To some extent	Little encouragement		
Penna. .	Both	5 "towns"	By legislation	So far as tried	Local initiative
R. I. .	Both	Sentiment favorable	State aid, etc.	Yes	Loc. init. stimulated by appro.
S. D. .	Both for ten mo.	Not to great extent	Benefits pointed out	Yes	Both necessary
Texas .	(a) Yes. (b) No	In a few counties	By legislation	Yes	Agit. and local initiative
Utah . .	Both	A number of districts	Meetings, legislation, etc.	Yes	Agit. and local initiative
Va. . .	Both since 1892	To limited extent	State aid, etc.	Yes	Both
Wash. .	Both recent	To limited extent	Lectures and circulars	Yes, in fav. ter.	Agit. and local initiative
W. Va. .	(a) Yes; (b) No	Several districts	Central office, etc.	Splendid results	Agit. and local initiative
W. Y. .	No direct law				

The answers to the question concerning the existence of a law encouraging consolidation and permitting transportation at public expense make it entirely clear that there is a widespread sentiment in favor of consolidation as a means of improving the rural schools in parts of the country adapted at all thereto. The only conditions named anywhere were that there should be good roads and a population not so sparse as to offer the barrier of distances that are too great to cover in a reasonably short time. In *Georgia*, in spite of her having no law giving encouragement to the plan, there are 15 to 20 counties now trying consolidation with great success; also six to eight counties are trying free transportation. The county boards of education have great power in this state, and seem to be willing to take some risk in experimenting with new things. The *Indiana* law provides for the abandonment of schools having an average daily attendance of twelve pupils, or fewer. According to the general law, trustees are required to furnish equal educational privileges to all children in the townships; thus trustees are morally obligated to transport children elsewhere. *Iowa* has a law providing for the levy of an additional tax for the transportation of pupils where it is necessary.

Sometimes legislation anticipates any wide-spread sentiment in favor of consolidation, as in *Maryland* where only a few schools have really consolidated. Again both consolidation and free transportation may become operative in the more progressive states, and parts of states, before the law specifically provides for such methods of school administration, as in *Indiana*. The *New Hampshire* law provides that, not over 25 per cent. of the school moneys shall be used for transportation. In *West Virginia* there is a rapidly growing interest in the problem, and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction hopes at the next meeting of the legislature to secure the enactment of a law authorizing both consolidation and free transportation. In the *State of Wyoming*, although there is no law on the matter, several districts, supported in their efforts at school improvement by the State Superintendent's broad interpretation of the existing law, are going ahead with consolidation and transportation, and are meeting with great success.

On the point raised in question two of the latter list, it may be observed that only a small percentage of the entire number of rural school districts have been consolidated; but on the other hand the reports of success when the plan is tried, put it beyond all reasonable doubt that the experimental stage is passed, and that the next would seem to be to make the plan as generally operative as the conditions of roads and density of population will warrant.

The data on the point raised in question 3 bears upon the manner and method of encouragement given to the movement for consolidation of rural school districts with free transportation of pupils. The answers received on this point are of the greatest interest, for this knowledge makes it possible to predict with a reasonable degree of certainty what will be the condition of rural education in the several states until the attitude of the educational leader is changed. In general there are three fairly well marked attitudes to be found in the educational departments of the several states. The first attitude is that which, working through the legislature, secures state aid for the plan in the form of a special appropriation to encourage consolidation and free transportation. *Oregon* appropriates \$50 extra for three years to each district that consolidates. In *Rhode Island* and *California* districts thus uniting do not receive extra allowance from the treasury, but may continue to draw as much money as though not consolidated. This is virtually legislation favorable to the plan of consolidation. In *South Carolina* districts appropriating \$100 for the purpose of such a change receive \$50 from the state, and so on in this proportion until the state's amount is \$300, the maximum amount thus appropriated to any consolidated district. This law is locally expected powerfully to stimulate consolidation as the plan proves its value in the districts where it has been adopted and tried. The state of *Washington* allows consolidated districts "2000 additional attendance," which amounts to about \$180 a year additional to regular apportionments.

The second attitude is that of discussion, and spreading the news of its advantages and benefits and latest adoptions in other parts of the country or the same state. This is done in a number of the states. The superintendents of public instruction in Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Indiana have issued valuable studies in this subject, and have sent these in the originals or in reprints all over their respective states. The result is a rapid increase of sentiment in favor of the movement in many parts of these states. Other states have doubtless done as much, but the results of such studies and such effort have not come to my notice. The department of education in Georgia urges it upon the best communities. "They take pride in doing something progressive." Indiana reports that the state superintendent, county superintendents, and leading teachers in the various counties co-operate in a generous rivalry to see which can do most to further the plan of consolidation with free transportation of pupils. *Oregon* encourages it by discussion. *Missouri* reports that the state and the county superintendents generally encourage the move-

VII.

AN INDUCTIVE STUDY.

1)

*made of your rural school
Sunday-school, Singing-school,
bug bees, lectures, Thanks-
gives, neighborhood meetings,*

to this inquiry cannot be so
advantage, in tabular form.
indirect criteria of the rich-
poor rural districts is such
in the words of the corre-
replies from several states.

and more becoming the social

these purposes. Largely used

these purposes."

for such purposes upon order of
generally used for such pur-

the Counties

Sunday-School is allowed, and oc-

used for such purposes."

"

About one-half have one or two

such purposes use is granted.

these here."

purposes."

and for such purposes."

Schools and neighborhood meet-

centralized school has a yearly

or. Some have lecture courses."

uses other than school work.

trouble in procuring any of them
required,

re frequently used for Sunday-

such purposes."

are but arguments for the consolida-

the rural schools must continue to

consolidation is brought about.

Educational leadership is involved here, and it would seem that it is more needed even than higher salaries, longer school terms, better buildings, and better trained teachers. All these improvements can come only through agitation, discussion, co-operation, and local initiative. These will inevitably be chaotic without leadership, and, as a matter of fact, these methods of educational improvement can become rightly operative only with such direction and modification as the best educational leaders can give. With leadership it would seem to be difficult to place bounds to what might be done in rural, or any other kind of education. Enlightenment, encouragement, and assistance will make all sincere parents ambitious for their children and for their neighborhoods. To create a want is to create the ingenuity and perseverance which are necessary to satisfy that want. "Wanting" things does not mean "day-dreaming" about things. Many parents are "day-dreaming" about the success of their children, but the number who really "want" things for their children is not so large. The young married couple who, desiring after one year's residence in a very humble cottage to live in a nicer house and on a better street, go to work to gain that end, teach us what the word "want" means.

It would, therefore, appear that legislation can do no more than make it possible for the progressive portion of the people to use the institutions of the state for the accomplishment of their legitimate purposes in accordance with their best thought upon the subject in question. Again and again in the history of our country have statutes become dead letters because they lacked the support of public opinion and the active support of the best people of the state. One of the best ways by which a state can further the interests of the rural school is to offer special financial assistance. This is not an injustice to the less favored districts. That a district should plan largely for the young people for whom it is responsible and upon whom it must depend in the coming years, only means that it has faith in its young people, that it expects something of them, that it believes in the "gospel of effort" with proper co-operation. Such communities are beacon lights; they are cities set on a hill, and their light and example shine out far over the state and the country in which they are located.

But permissive legislation is only the beginning of the problem. It is for agitation and discussion to create the want referred to above. The advantages and disadvantages of rural life should be discussed; how the consolidated school when fully organized will improve the conditions of rural life; how a community that wants all these improved conditions can have them almost as easily as a community easily satisfied can have its present meagre advantages. (112)

... would
... danger
... teachers
... nation, and
... still in
... of fact
... e right
... on as the
... t won't
... lone in
... , each
... nts at
... To
... ce with
... ings &
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... dren
... child
... ring
... live
... rain

[illegible]

the rural schools in
; (3) spelling;
teachers, probably?

ON BRANCHES.

re to inquiry

of Schl. Bk. Commis-
d price. Chosen by St.
n by Text-book Comm.
by State Board of Ed.

Winton & Reed; 4. Field
Modern ; 4. Montgomery,
Modern : 4. McMaster;

dy, Reed & Kellog; 3.
; 5. Yes.
Gowdy; 3. Rice; 4.
and some are pushed in
Tongue; 4. McMaster;
endent.
English; 3. Progressive
ey are uniform for the

2. Co.'s books, mainly.
 Eclectic.
 1. Bright; 3. Rice; 4. Mont-
 have no choice unless they
 from which they come.
 advice of the teachers.
 so selected.
 1. Barnes, Montgomery; 5.
 choice of the teachers.
 ellogg; 3. Rice; 4. Barnes.
 publications largely. 5 Yes.
 ally, yes
 hat the pupils bring.
 half the districts influence

- by the teachers.
- by the teachers.
- directors.
- mainly.
- predominate.
- up to date.

Freeborn, Minn. "Used for these purposes to
Morrison, Minn. "Usually for all of these."
Polk, Minn. "Very few used for any other
which they were intended."

Camden, N. J. "Practically none."

Hunterdon, N. J. "Not used for such purpose."

Salem, N. J. "Slight use."

Somerset, N. J. "About one-half for Sunday-

Delaware, 1 C. D., N. Y. "Very little, and
ings."

Herkimer, 1 C. D., New York. "Very little."

Steuben, 2 C. D., N. Y. "Large number of
ings of the district."

Buffalo, Neb. "The schoolhouse is considered."

Gage, Neb. "All, more or less regularly,"

Athens, O. "very little except for educational."

Beaver, Pa. "Many are used for such purposes."

Columbia, Pa. "Sunday-schools in about 2
district."

Erie, Pa. "Largely used as centres."

Lycoming, Pa. "Some are used for Sunday-
vices where there are no churches."

Montgomery, Pa. "I do not believe one."

Washington, Pa., "But very little."

Westmoreland, Pa. "Almost none."

Sumter, S. C. "A few where schools have."

Cherokee, Tex. "Generally used for agricultural."

Eau Claire, Wis. "Most have some other
mentioned."

significant replies

A corn husker makes
a day and board. A
ands six dollars a week

ent. (b) Lack of teach-
anges, lack of system.
ugh and the educational

etent teachers.
in education. Desire to

pils until completion of

realization. (b) Inefficient
too little compensation to
ation.

a officials and teachers.

work. (b) Primary Reading
conditions. (b) Parental

ncy of teachers and better

e.

Questionnaire Material

Preparation of the Teacher.

Children included in the re-
58 are enrolled in schools
of the county superintend-
mer. This is less than one
4.68 per cent. In a county
erage size, quite, would be
vision. The significance of
however, only in the light of
s, viz., those giving data on
the rural school teacher. If
work as the bachelor in di-
ctor of medicine for medicine,
l the doctor of philosophy is
he above figures would lose a
s. As a matter of fact the
school is without professional
eking in academic knowledge.
1.)

Of the 52 counties represented in Table VI five reported that all, or nearly all, the rural school teachers had been prepared wholly in the rural school. Six reported from 75 to 80 per cent. of their teachers to be so educated. Eight reported from 40 to 60 per cent. to be so prepared. Nine reported the corresponding figures to be from 20 to 40 per cent. Six reported these figures to be from 10 to 20 per cent.; and twelve, that it is 5 per cent., or less, of their teachers who are prepared wholly in the rural schools in which they teach. Six reported that all their teachers had some training in schools of higher grade. Assuming that the counties are of equal population, (to avoid endless multiplication and division,) only 11 per cent. of the counties can report that all their teachers have had training in schools of higher grade than those in which they teach. But the questions arise: Is this training not such as to render supervision in addition to that of the county superintendent necessary? At what sort of school was this "higher" training received? Was it a year or so in a high school? Was it at some private school, or at a district normal school which continued for a term of six to ten weeks? Or was it at a summer school of methods? These questions could have been included in the list if there were no limit to the demands one teacher may make upon another's time and thought. The answers might have been worth more for our purpose if the question had run: What per cent. of your rural school teachers have had one or two year's work beyond the rural school? In what kind of school?

One might sum up the data on the preparation of the rural school teacher and say: (1) In a considerable part (more than 10 per cent.) of the counties all the teachers were prepared in schools of like grade with those in which they are called to teach. (2) In the same proportion of counties all the teachers are claimed to have received a higher training, the exact character of which is undetermined because of incomplete data. (3) The other counties range between these extremes, having a varying proportion of teachers who have had some higher training. The need of closer supervision can be seen in the light of these facts. The rural school teachers are untrained from a professional and academic standpoint to so large a degree as to make it impossible to class them with the professional or learned classes, if these terms are strictly defined. In point of efficiency they must be classed with the journeyman and trade apprentice, for they are working on a minimum of knowledge, with a minimum of skill, for the lack of which moral earnestness will not make adequate amends. From the engineer's standpoint the question would be: How can I with a given amount of money at my command increase

the efficiency of the institution in and for which I labor-increase the efficiency of the commonest laborer in that institution? His answer in all the commercial and industrial lines of activity is that it must be done by supervision, and that of a skilled character. The expert superintendent is indispensable in all the trades and industries, and we shall learn soon that the same thing must be done to increase the efficiency of the rural school teacher. And we shall learn to come to this change without sudden breaks or upheavals. Just as it would be impossible to run a printing house profitably by putting it in the hands of certain inexperienced persons who had, forsooth, been sent away a term to a night school of printing, or to a mid-summer seaside school of printing, without head or supervision, so the rural school can not be run effectively by that plan. The expert printer's services are needed to unify the work, to keep up with the latest and best things in the art of printing, and to see that all the employes are working up to the highest degree of efficiency. More than 95 per cent. of the rural schools included in this study follow the supposed plan of the foolish printing company-give all the interests over to the comparatively uninitiated without any real supervision. If this condition is true of the 8666 rural schools considered in this study, what of the other rural schools of the country? One recalls in this connection the statement of the Committee of Twelve that the "number of normal trained teachers in rural schools is lamentably small," and "rural schools suffer from lack of trained teachers." (113).

The Course of Study

The statements to the effect that the county has a course of study but it is difficult to get the teachers to follow it and that the course is followed "strictly" give a clue to the real condition of affairs in many, at least, of our rural counties, so far as the course of study is concerned. Courses are worked out, printed, and placed in the hands of the teachers. In too many cases there is evidently no way of holding the teachers up to the printed course and preparing them to carry out its directions if they are not yet competent to do so. The average amount of supervision given the teachers of the 300,000 rural school children whose cultural and educational advantages it is sought to ascertain in this study would enable the county superintendent or commissioner to do very little towards carrying out the intent of an elaborate state or county course of study. This is not easy when conditions are most favorable, and the difficulties of the problem are greatly enhanced in the less favored counties. One or two supervisory visits a year (or less) will never bring the rural schools up to

to the motor and constructive
 the principle of specialization
 on school course in the high school
 the same thing can not be done for
 shall have become some-

that we shall, at an early date, find
 of thoroughgoing reconstruction
 that shall be the attitude of the pro-
 fore, who are by no means satisfied
 study and who are not sure just what
 make in the course which they have
 demands? The safe plan here is
 that are too radical. One may well
 such changes as he is sure of, or such
 tried elsewhere. This is the plan of
 course of study. Several suggestions
 this may be done. One method is that
 important subjects in each study may
 time thus saved may be used for con-
 matters. Another suggestion is that
 correlated as to enrich the work and
 instance, spelling may be taught in
 written work; geography and history may
 the advantage of both, and in less time
 for the plan which regards them as
 in entire isolation; then composition fits
 and it may be profitably taught in
 A third plan is closely related with the
 thing certain things incidentally, in more
 however, with other subjects. Morals
 taught in this way. Current events,
 elementary grammar, music, and hygiene
 might most easily and profitably lend them-
 of treatment. A fourth method is that of
 subjects are to be omitted at least from
 in which they are now taught. This has
 large and small, and it represents a serious
 the present overburdened curriculum. It is
 study to go into the subject of the curric-
 length. The literature on this subject is a
 increasing one. The course of study is the
 the most notable pedagogical publications of
 work of two volumes by Chas. A. McMurry,

concerning the reading matter used above
 introduces a subject that demands some dis-

cussion. There are two facts which seem equally striking in this connection, viz., (1) that so many good things have been introduced into the reading work of these grades within a short time in so many places; (2) that there are so many schools in which there is no other reading material than that contained in the readers. This new matter which has been recently added to the work in reading may be spoken of as "literary wholes" to distinguish it from the matter contained in the usual readers the plan of which precludes the presentation of any lengthy "literary wholes." The usual reader material is of far less value from the literary, the ethical, the cultural standpoint than a much smaller number of the longer classics, or literary wholes. In the latter case the value is enhanced for several reasons among which are these: (1) The interest grows during the entire study of any great classic from the first page to the last because there is such an arrangement of human elements as to produce this cumulative effect; (2) the student gets a far better conception of how a classic grows and is built up out of elements and parts that may easily be analyzed; (3) the educative, expansive, character of a classic (which may be wholly incidental) is greater in the classic although the intellectual elements may not be as great or valuable as the same number of reader material pages; (4) sometimes a whole classic is necessary to give one a background to a great epoch in history or a period of human development. The whole classic will likely be needed to give one as deep an insight into historic development as possible. Such is the nature and value of *Evangeline*, of the *Courtship of Miles Standish*, and of *William Tell*. All classics are more or less so. (117)

On the other hand it may be said that the readers are often rich in short poems that are among the choicest gems of literature. These are wholes, but instead of using them in a setting of stories of travel or adventure, of biography and scraps of so-called nature study description, it would be better to give them a literary setting in the longer wholes which are mentioned in the answers to question 5. The short poems here referred to could be introduced for the educational purpose of enrichment; as incidents in an important epoch; for purposes of comparison with some passage which the short poem resembles or of which it otherwise reminds one; or for variety, interspersed between the longer and more serious classic wholes which should form the larger part of the reading matter beyond the third school year. When the reader plan is followed there are so many different entirely unrelated units of thought that the memory must retain if the work in reading is to produce its best effect, and not be a mere drill in

the mechanics of reading. Usually the memory is injured rather than built up. In a hurried study of the content of a number of readers I found, taking all the readers in a rather well supplied city school library as the basis of my study, that the average length of selection in the second reader is 2.35 pages, the shortest average being 1.7, and the longest average being 3.5 pages. For the third reader the corresponding figures are 2.88, 2.30, and 3.50 pages respectively. In the case of the fourth reader the figures are 4.28, 3.40, and 5.80 pages respectively. This is a compass not ample enough to allow an author to exhibit his constructive powers and to give an adequate conception of cause and effect working themselves out in the lives of men and women and nations. It is only the genius that can do this at all, and he can do it only on condition that he shall have space enough to make plans, develop them, reach climaxes, and move on to inevitable conclusions. And I submit that it is the purpose of literature to describe conditions and make them clear, and to leave it to the intelligence of the reader to explain and trace out cause and effect in the development of human character.

President Eliot makes an almost startling statement in regard to the amount of matter that the usual reader plan provides for the children in the grades. He found as the result of a brief examination of the grammar schools that the average amount of material read under the head of "reading" is only 1150 pages. He calculates that if the rate of a fairly active boy be put at 25 pages an hour, the public school pupil has in the whole eight years enough reading matter to occupy his undivided time for just 46 hours. When this condition on the quantitative side of the subject is taken in connection with the facts that have been brought out in the discussion of the matter in its qualitative aspects, the situation of affairs in the average rural school so far as reading is concerned can not be viewed with complacency. There is a manifest poverty of material in our public schools in one of the most important subjects—a subject that may easily be made to yield the richest results for the future life of the child. There can not be found any apology for such a condition of affairs in our schools, considering how inexpensive most of the classics are. Custom and habit weigh heavily upon most schoolmasters, and still more so with boards of education. Of course it is far more easy to order the books for the reader course and not bother with the selection of classics adapted to the several grades; it is cheaper to have only the readers; the readers are easier to teach, for all the work is graded, adapted, abridged, annotated, and provided with lists of words hard to pronounce accurately marked, all new words defined, and even

lists of themes for profitable compositions are given; and finally the book agent is vigorous in pressing the claims of his set of readers while there is little pecuniary interest in the sale of English classics for use in the public schools.

Literature, science, or nature study, and history (the last of which is not mentioned in the table) are the great content subjects of the public school curriculum. The answers to question 6 will enable one to judge whether the course as now found is strong or weak on the content side. From the time of the sophists in Greece there has been a sharp distinction drawn between subjects pursued mainly for the content value and another kind of study which is held to be of a wholly formal value. This emphasis seems to be maximal in the curriculum of our rural and city school systems below the high school. It is contented that certain studies of comparatively slight value in themselves are of the greatest value in giving mental discipline, formal power, which like electricity in a storage battery or water in a standpipe may be tapped off into any desired channel and used in the performance of various kinds of work. Reading, considered as a mechanical habituation, spelling, writing, and arithmetic, the sum and substance of our older public school curriculum, constitute to-day the recognized backbone of all rural school curricula everywhere. May not one acquire facility in pronouncing hard words and juggling with mysterious mathematical signs and figures without enriching his life on the content side? Should not formal development go hand in hand with development along lines of rich content? If such is the thought with which one examines our rural school curriculum he will soon find himself driven to the conclusion that it needs enrichment on the content side, and the statistics showing the work done in science, nature study, and literature are to be considered alone from this standpoint.

The answers to questions 8 and 9 are especially significant as indicating the strength or weakness of the common school curriculum on the motor, expressive, or creative side. It would seem to be difficult to find any biological basis at all for our present course of study, and the only psychological basis is that of a poor and discredited psychology—the psychology of the intellect—the emotions, sentiments, and action being entirely neglected. (129) Possibly a triple division of subjects into those of content, of expression, and of purely formal value would be the most suggestive for purposes of interpretation and evaluation in the study of the curriculum. Expressive subjects give self-mastery; the formal give one command of the symbols through which the thoughts and achievements of one age become transmissible to and interpre

table by a later age ; while the content subjects add enrichment by feeding the soul. (117) In what proportions and in what order these elements should be introduced into the curriculum of the common school is for a true ethics and a true psychology to determine. We have gone far enough, at least, to see that any system of schools must be classed as weak that is seriously lacking in content, or that provides for no development along lines of expression and creative activity. Imitation is the method by which the child gains self mastery through expressive and creative activity. It is this fact that makes all sorts of imitative games so valuable in the early stages of education. The ordinary school curriculum provides for no imitative activity whatever, and in many texts in psychology it would seem to be regarded as a subject of little value. Imitation is a sign of weakness, the imitator not having any initiative of his own. As a matter of fact, it may well be questioned whether there would ever be any advancement in originality if there were not first more or less passive imitation. Professor J. Mark Baldwin well says : "We cannot divide the child into two parts, two realities coming up to the facts of life with two capabilities, one fitted only to imitate, and the other fitted to invent. Of course it is the same child whatever he does ; and if he be gifted with the power of invention at all, this power should show itself in all he does." (118)

There are certain subjects of an obviously practical value for the rural school, such as the study of the weather map and agricultural topics. The answers to questions 3 and 11 give some facts enabling one to judge of the character of our rural school work in this regard. The rural consciousness is just awaking to the importance of these matters.

Questions 14 and 18 seek information on matters which point out what the attitude of the community is towards its school. Is it a social centre to any degree? Are the parents interested enough to attend meetings called for the improvement of the school? Are the teachers and school officers imbued with the thought that only through co-operation among all parties concerned can the school become the great social institution that it ought to become? We usually like to be with people we esteem, and at places that give us instruction and inspiration. What is the value of the rural school as a place of inspiration to pupils and to their parents? It is only a sentimental value that one attaches to the Bible if he makes no use of its contents for the spiritual guidance and help of which he feels continual need. It is vain for parents to protest their interest in the school if they never go near it or help it to do its work in an increasingly effective way. If they do

not use it to its fullest limit they are not its best helpers. The school is like the Bible and money. It must be used to bring out its greatest value. Taken in connection with the facts in regard to the improvement of the school ground and buildings, these answers indicate what the attitude of the public really is towards the school and what it is probably most in need of—a great crusade of enlightenment and agitation. If the country people loved their rural schools as they say they do, and as they may think they do, they would adorn them and point to them with as much pride as they now do to their neat barns, well kept horses and cattle, or to their wide waving fields of grain and their burdened orchards.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE RURAL SCHOOL OF THE FUTURE

What will the rural school of the future be like? What will it do? How will it do it? How will the needed transformation of conditions be brought about? In what fundamental respects will it differ from the rural school of our day? These questions suggest a very interesting field for the exercise of the imagination because of the acknowledged advantages of life in the country. But there are certain known elements of the problem which lift it into a higher sphere than that of mere imagination. It is these known elements which mark it as a field especially interesting to the educational theorist and the social reformer, or destine it to become interesting to all such men. Is it not as reasonable to study the future of the American rural school as it is to study the future of American diplomacy, the future of theology, the future of medicine, or the future of railways? The rural school can never rise to its proper place among the institutions of civilization and culture until it is the object of the best thought and the centre of the most enlightened and sympathetic co-operation of the wisest and best people—until it is an object of concern to all people whose homes are in the country. This interest cannot be aroused without much hard pioneer work.

It is some time since we have entered upon a new epoch so far as the American rural school is concerned—an epoch of inquiry into its conditions and its needs, and of appreciation so far as its mission and opportunity are concerned. The cry of the occasional speaker of the late 70's and the 80's has elicited an interest that is now on the increase and bids fair to work decided changes in our rural school program. Committees have been appointed, have made their studies, have reported, and have been heard. In certain localities forces are working out changes in rural schools that are very promising. How can the findings of committees be made more effective? How can the social forces now working beneficent changes in a few localities be made more generally operative?

In such a study as that which is proposed in this chapter there can be no very critical consideration of those changes which by degrees almost imperceptible bridge over the chasm between the rural school of the past and that of the future. It is always easier to trace out the causes and conditions of a historical event than it is to foretell precisely how causes and modifying causes will conspire to produce an event to which one looks forward. Hence most of those false prophecies that have gone out into the world. Great, however, as is the

risk, it is best not to conclude this study without a chapter on the rural school of the future.

What, therefore, of the rural school of the future?

1. In the first place, the chief concern of rural school of the future will be what it can do and what it can become, not what it has been and what it has done. The custom of defending what is habitual, or repelling the novel by reciting the methods and aims of our forefathers must be discarded in the case of the rural, as it has been in the case of the best city schools. No institution, any more than a state, wholly unconscious of an inherited destiny, a future, a mission of service and power, a purpose earnestly striven for, a policy, if you please, can long escape general inefficiency and decadence. Rooted and grounded in the past as all social institutions doubtless are, their chief source of inspiration is in the future and their only potential aspect is toward the future. It is the bane of the rural school that most of the persons in authority have been either unable or unwilling to withdraw their eyes from the past long enough to take a thoughtful look at the future. It is a deserved reproach of the common school that all reforms through which it has passed have been forced upon it from without and not developed from within. An attitude less hostile to the new, if it had been adopted by the schoolmaster with his superiors and advisers, would have saved the teaching body from this galling reproach. And what if the schoolmaster's attitude had been inquisitive and actively hospitable to the new? But we should not ask more of the schoolmaster of the past than we do of the preacher, the lawyer, the physician, or the statesman. With a spirit of fairness and a knowledge of the conditions under which, in nearly all ages, he has been compelled to work, we shall be prompted to ask far less. In the case of each profession, devious, interrupted, difficult is the way that leads from hostility toward the new to glad acceptance of the new, from whatever source it might come. Many professional men are still worshipping the Idols of custom and tradition with hurtful devotion.

The day of the new rural school will not come to-morrow, and it may not come within the next two or three decades; but when that day comes it will dawn upon a school that is conscious of a sacred mission, a great purpose, a working policy, and a gaze fixed upon the future. The most active in shaping the character of the rural school will be leaders not second to those that have molded the character of any other profession or institution. The problems that will be sure to arise will be solved by the methods of co-operation which will involve initiative, criticism, tolerance, progress by the adoption

of the new and the elimination of the useless old. The problems will be recognized as the problems of the community, and not of a class.

2. In the second place the rural school of the future will become aggressively active. This activity will grow out of interest and a desire to improve the rural school in all of its aspects and departments. The one great desideratum before any attempt is made to improve the school is to bring the people of the rural community to a healthful awareness (1) that the future of our country depends upon how the rural districts bring up their children; (2) that fields, flowers, blue sky, a neglected school, and an underpaid and ill-prepared teacher are not enough left to themselves to wield the desired influence upon these children; (3) that trained leadership is as much needed in the development of country life and thought as it has been needed for the same purposes in the city; (4) that such leadership will cost something—something in money and not less, something in terms of social appreciation and confidence. It would not seem to be necessary to dwell upon the cultural, the ethical value of a free country life—country life at its best. (129) A pretty general knowledge of this higher value of country life at its best may be taken for granted. How can the public conscience and public opinion be quickened and developed? Only by a number of persons whose interest in the economic, social, educational, and aesthetic aspects of rural community life is great enough to enable them to mold public opinion. Better conditions of labor, more efficient tillage of the land, the educational, cultural, and recreative use of a greater number of holidays; better knowledge of plants and soils, of markets and marketing; a more thorough diffusion of all pertinent scientific knowledge, and especially of agricultural knowledge,—these are examples of the benefits that will accrue from a policy that is aggressive for the improvement of rural life. Public opinion will prepare its own leaders and in turn will be reacted upon by those leaders. Through some such stages as these is arising whatever active rural school policy we have, and in this way such a policy will continue to grow and extend.

3. In the next place the rural school of the future will differ sharply from the school of a few decades ago and from the school of our day in a number of important respects (1). It will not be an isolated school for twenty or fewer pupils, 100 days in the year, and playing no part in the social well being of the community. The educative forces in such school are not powerful. There is no vital contact with the best intellectual, artistic and ethical institutions and products of the age. The problems of such a school are not the prob-

lems of life. There is nothing in such a school to stimulate, to arouse, to inform, to mold those for whom the school exists. Its work is almost necessarily dead and formal. Its purpose according to theory is to form character; in practice it is the dispenser of and the drill master in the symbols of our civilization, working in utter disjunction from the great problems of a rich life.

There is a great economic loss involved in the possession of either church or school used so little as these institutions are used today all over our country. Taking the country as a whole, the rural school house is used about five or six hours, for five days in the week, for half of the year. Society owns no other common property that is used so little. (120) This loss must continue until the new rural school appears. What change in the attitude towards the rural school will bring about the more economic use of the rural school buildings? The answer lies in the fact that the rural school of the future will be (2) the social centre of the rural community. What is the social centre in the average rural community of our day? The answer is easy. There is none. There is no place in the average rural community that deserves the name—social centre. A social centre is a meeting ground for the interplay of social forces, those unseen but potent mental energies, which are brought into action when one individual meets another. The social centre of the community is *the* meeting ground for the interplay of all the constructive social forces inherent in all the individuals which comprise such community. Why could the rural church not furnish this meeting ground? It might; but from the standpoint of social leadership, it would have to change its method of work and its attitude towards the problems of rural life. These changes are likely to be harder to bring about than those which would be required to make the rural school worthy of confidence as the social centre of the community. (23)

Now the same objection cannot be urged against the school, for there is this essential difference between the church and the school, that the latter is not the vehicle of such prejudices, such animosities, such sectarian demarcations as is the church. The activity of the church is too often centered in dogma, which is something finished, perfect, divine. There is no such finality in the theory and practice of elementary education as to render discussion and agitation for change impossible or undesirable. It is only by fresh thinking and the perpetual interchange of ideas on any concept that it can be kept from becoming the content of an unchanging, and therefore dead, verbiage. "Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay," because in the one there is a relentless hos-

tility to all agitation, to the new ; in the other, society comes to ever clearer consciousness of its nature, its powers, its destiny and duties by the sharp attrition of mind upon mind. Steel sharpens steel.

So the school is far better fitted to become the social centre of the community than any church would possibly be. The school engrosses more interests which all members of the community hold in common. It may be assumed that it is possible to unite all members of the community in certain interests and activities, among which the following might be named : Interest in the education of their own children ; interest in the industrial education of these children ; a desire to have as good schools as the means at hand can secure ; a wish to promote good feeling, a knowledge of many cultural things, and to foster a broad community sympathy. The school is just the place to be chosen as the centre for all this constructive activity. And it is now really becoming the centre for such interest and activity at a far more rapid rate than one would suspect.

This position as the social centre of the community will give the rural school of the future great power, but it will entail a lofty duty and a high responsibility. How is it ever to measure up to such a high standard of efficiency and power ? Only by co-operation between a body of professionally trained teachers and supervisory officers on the one hand, and all other members of the community on the other hand. (119) It must stand in the closest possible touch with the material and the spiritual needs of men as the men regard these needs, or as an institution it cannot endure long. (121) In the meetings of a community thus enlightened by the spirit and practice of mutual helpfulness, the freest expression of opinion may be encouraged without fear of arousing prejudice or acrimony. The co-operation which is here ever kept in mind is not a sentimental one in which the assessed shall pay all the taxes for the support of the school, and the teacher all the brains required to run them. It is an organic co-operation of the members of a society for the accomplishment of a consciously set collective end. Every question rests for final settlement with that society. This is not held to mean that society, so working, shall have no need of leadership, of guidance, just the contrary. But such a society will be most helped by leaders who can learn many lessons from the led, and who are adepts in the technique of social suggestion and such manly persuasion and argumentation as are proper in an enlightened democracy. A society without such leadership is civilization turned back to the middle ages, and leadership without the intelligent, frank, hearty, unenforced support of the majority

lems of life. There is nothing in such to arouse, to inform, to mold those for ists. Its work is almost necessarily purpose according to theory is to form it is the dispenser of and the drill master civilization, working in utter disjunctions of a rich life.

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stations at the centre, with thought and imagination, and an advantage over the usual are advantages, too, for a citizenship. Of course the interest extend out over the more easily begun in a town or concentration and richness of is sure to find some officers of may be used to enkindle a desire te, the community, the govern- all have the telephone, the tele- newspaper, and the magazine. religious centre of the community, only gain by the proximity of thus have a far more extended ence in the community for all these operation more easy by making it more likely to be profitable for the

this school of the future little need atmosphere different from that in which their school days. It will grow out of teaching force; out of the newer purposes and value of education out of a course of study better adapted to such schools; out of greater mutual interests and children and the so-called this school of the future the test of power to cause the pupil to "understand and react on the resources and the civilization. (123) The relation between the school of the future will be like that between the best parents and their children, most favorable to their pupils when working together. The work of such schools will not be a preparation of for life as an introduction to modern thought, aspiration, and action, will be like the great Teacher in at respect. He will be able sincerely and I have come that ye might have it more abundantly." might have pedagogues, teachers, leaders of in such and their pupils there can be mulating, confidence-inspiring relations.

is an anachronism in our day, and a blot on civilization, wherever found.

But the school of the future will differ from the school of the past and the present in that it will be (3) a seminary of physical, intellectual and moral culture. It will relate itself far more intimately and vitally to the practical interests of the community on the one hand : and on the other hand it will relate itself with (a) these ideals of individual and social health and worth without which no community or state can attain its highest and healthiest development ; and (b) play and recreation for cultural ends, and not for useless or vulgar display or mere soul-destroying pastime. Instead of being a place where for a few short hours on certain days of the week a few set ideas are drilled into the intellects of the children, it will be a place of culture, and training, and inspiration, as well as instruction and informing. It will be a seminary. A seminary is a place where seeds grow—grow, too, under conditions that are well adapted to the end in view and to the nature of the seed. A school that is a seminary is a place where the seed thoughts of civilization are caused to take root in the intellects, and *hearts* of the students which have been entrusted to them. The physical environment, school atmosphere, relation between teacher and pupil, training of those who aspire to be the teachers in this school, methods of securing helpful co-operation between the school authorities and the community at large will be matters of primal importance in the educational economy of the future rural school. The school so organized and managed will go on to ascertain the real values of the different subjects of the school curriculum. What are ends in themselves? Which only means? In a school so alert it will be impossible for so much time to be spent on a group of subjects that are only instruments of further advancement. (122) The course of study in the rural school will be a course that is endorsed by a large majority of the people themselves.

There are two locations that are equally objectionable from the standpoint of environment, the busy, noisy, crowded street corner of a large city and the isolated, treeless corner of a country cross-roads. In the future both city and country will see to it that these locations are religiously avoided. In many a rural community it would be possible to find a village or small town sufficiently near the geographical or population centre to be made the convenient school centre of said community. This would have its obvious advantages over the bleak country cross-roads where the school-house is likely to be nothing but "a ragged beggar sunning." Its proximity to the mail will be one great advantage. The probability that

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high school will not only remove this objection to rural life, but it will at the same time stimulate an ever increasing number of country children to go on to college and to other higher institutions of learning, and thus bring to bear upon the rural problems the light and learning of our great university centres. Surely that will be a day worth living for when in every corner of rural America there shall be discussed the ideals and aims and methods of true university training, and in every knot of college students that rural corner shall have its representatives. Then will education play a role in the spiritual development of our country districts that is now not even dreamed of. Another point of vital importance in this connection is the fact that the families that are least satisfied with the educational and cultural advantages which rural areas of our land now provide are the ones which the country districts can least afford to lose. It is just these people whose presence in the country will be sure to secure by agitation and influence such improved conditions as these districts need.

CHAPTER IX.

THE RURAL SCHOOL OF THE FUTURE (Continued)

In the next place this school will be (b) a well supervised school. No matter how well trained and educated the teachers are, the school will for a long time to come require expert supervision. There will not need to be any abrupt break in the functions of this official, but there will be a change in the conception of his work as time goes on. The first use of educational supervision was to secure the observance of matters of outer detail, such as promptness in school attendance, accuracy in official reports and in the interpretation of school law; the second use concerned itself with the observance of matters of inner detail, such as minute methods and teaching devices, rules for lesson reviews, preparations, and previews; overdrawn exactness in the application of the doctrine of the "five formal steps of the recitation"; and all that pertains to securing in the shortest time and with the least expenditure of energy what I have elsewhere termed the "memoriter appropriation" of our over-filled and over-elaborated course of study; the highest and last function of supervision will be that which the future school will exhibit. It will be directive; it will be inspirational; it will be co-operative; and it will be made effective and prevalent by the same gentle means as are employed in other professions and in those industrial establishments where skilled leadership has long counted for so much. Supervisory power secured by any other means or exercised in any other way should be entirely wanting in the school of the future in a country which does avowedly, and should really, stand for freedom and liberty.

This functional development of school supervision corresponds closely to the chronological phases through which it has passed, or is destined to pass. There are promising signs of an early escape from the perplexities of the second stage, although in most parts of our country we have not wholly emerged from the first stage of supervision. Three changes must be brought about before educational supervision can attain that influence and power which it should exert, and which it is destined to exert in the school of the future. First, teachers generally must represent a higher stage of culture and knowledge, academic and professional; supervisors must be possessed of all these elements in a higher degree than they now are, and in addition thereto they must have a background of philosophic knowledge. This will demand an acquaintance with the history of speculative thought, and in particular so far as this centres in the development of the spirit. Then

they must have the sociological standpoint and attitude. And the masses of the people must be brought to a state of mind on all educational matters relatively as advanced as that of the teacher and the superintendent. It is easy to see that the supervisory officer, possessed of such knowledge and such insight into the nature of society and its deepest problems, and working through such a body of teachers as is taken for granted, will leave the device-methods attitude and seek to ground his teachers in the principles involved—that is, he will pass from the device stage to the comparatively liberalizing stage of philosophical principle. In his relations with his teachers he will be a helper and an inspirer. The ancient Spartans had an important state official whom they significantly styled an “inspirer of youth.” (124) There may be many inspirers in the future civilization of America, but none will be better thought of than the men and women whose duty it shall be to encourage teachers and children in the great work in which they are engaged. If this function of inspiration was important enough to lead the practical Spartan to mark it off as a specialized work of society, what place should it occupy in educational theory in a country in which the chief aim is much higher than mere military efficiency? To his teachers he will point out those sources in literature, history, science, and art, from which one must continually draw light and knowledge if he would be efficient in the broadest way, if he would postpone to the last the advent of that senile state of mind in which the easy adaptations of youth are impossible and the suspended judgments of virile manhood are unknown. If the future school can call into existence an officer that can inspire and rejuvenate and encourage those who are, in the largest sense, to bear the burdens of an exacting school system he will be doing the greatest service for society. In his relations with his pupils he will be a directive, an encouraging, a helpful force. He will aid the teacher, and go beyond her in leading each young person to the discovery of himself. He will be an able counselor in the choice of a vocation. He will aid each child to gain the mastery over his environment and over himself.

It will be noted in connection with these broader functions of the educational leader, that his work does not end with the close of the school day. In his social, or extra-scholastic, or extra-professional, relations with the community his influence upon and his service for it will be greater, if possible, than in his distinctive sphere. For in his broader relations he is dealing with those social forces and influences which are continually molding the school from without. So that if the state of the future is to be a cultured state, i. e.,

a state whose predominant interest is to spread culture and learning, understood in their broadest connotation, the mission of educational leadership in the future, as will be readily seen, will be a leadership of increasing power and significance. (126)

The rural school of the future will have (c) architectural and hygienic features far superior to those of the isolated rural school. More money will be available, better immediate surroundings can be selected, probably in the outer edge of the town or the village, in a natural or a gradually developed park. The school-house will be built with due reference to proper exposure, having the direct sunlight in every room. Its heating, ventilation, water supply, etc., will be planned with as much scientific precision as the best office buildings, churches, and schools in the most progressive cities now represent. Regard will be had to beauty as well as to utility. Consolidation of smaller schools will make it possible to provide at a minimal expense for all those accessories of a modern education,—scientific laboratories, physical training rooms, an art room, fitted up with simple copies of the great masterpieces in painting and statuary. It would be quite possible to provide a music room to be supplied with an organ, a piano, violins, cornets, a 'cello, a bass viol, and the like. This would serve as the nucleus of a school orchestra, and with a comparatively short period of training it could play for the opening exercises, for the different school gatherings, and even for summer picnics if these picnics were of general interest. This would add to country life some of the culture and features of the best city life, and nothing here suggested is beyond the range of a progressive community. Then, too, there ought to be a *shop* which would answer every purpose of a manual training department, and might be more inviting to the country boy or girl if so named. Here these young people would be brought into contact with the problems of actual construction, involving accurately co-ordinated muscular movement, and requiring a trained eye, a steady hand, a keen intellect, and, above all else, lively, inventive insight.

Another advantage possessed by the rural school here conceived will be (d) its experimental contact under trained agricultural leadership with the various phases and problems of farming. The trend of this experimental study should take its departure from the character and needs of each particular locality. There will be a foundation of knowledge which is prerequisite for any sort of life; and then the demands of each locality as determined by its chief occupations will give rise to the higher course of study best adapted to the needs of that community. In order that this latter study may be of

true scientific value it must be in the form of experiments performed under conditions that can be controlled and minutely described. This will make it possible for the first experimenter to repeat them and for other scientists to perform them under like conditions. Otherwise all this experimenting might be performed by each student on his father's farm. Gardening, fruit-raising (large and small), grain farming, grazing, dairying, etc., should be part of the course of study in the upper grades of the grammar school and in the high school in all communities where these special industries are important. In so far as possible this study should be in field, orchard, dairy, and truck-patch. It will be quite possible to get rural districts to set aside land enough for the purposes above named and to put it in good condition. Such a farm on which half of the work might be done by the advanced students of those subjects, could be made to produce a fair return on the investment, for the work could be carried on in accordance with the most approved methods, as well as in accordance with the demands of a wise economy, scientific result and educational benefit upon the whole community. This would give us the combined benefits of the present school garden and the agricultural experiment station—the interest of child's play added to the profit of intelligent adult activity. This blending of the intellectual, the manual, and the industrial would give us much of the best that is pictured to us as the contribution of the most promising schools of our day—those experiment stations of education, Abbotsholme, L'Ecole des Roches, Dr. Lietz's School in the Hartz Mountains, Mr. Badley's School at Petersfield, and Mr. Devine's at Clayesmore. (127) We should then have a school and a system of education which by the most progressive and inspired minds have been held up to us as ideals—a harmonious education of head and hand and heart acquired in the midst of beautiful natural scenery where one is exempt from those baneful influences which everywhere mark crowded city life. And yet this rural school, if it is to approach to ideal conditions must not be without the sharpening of the intellect, that refinement of manners and bearing that gentlemanly polish which almost from the dawn of history have been attributed to city life. Such was the ideal of Goethe when in the *Wanderjahre of Wilhelm Meister* he describes the Pedagogic Province. (126) Here we cannot help but note with what a master hand he has laid under tribute country life, air and freedom; art, which is more particularly an urban product; literature with the dramatic treatment of events and scenes; the languages, learned under the pressure of a powerful motive; and country occupations and amusements in

order that he might give us this delightful foregleam of what opportunities the country really affords for an ideal education. To this we shall have to add one supplemental lesson, viz., that outlay for the culture of men and women and children is a better permanent investment than our far greater outlay for fine cattle, for horses, for fine landscapes, beautiful homes, fine vehicles and expensive menus.

4. The next major division of the subject concerns itself with the teacher of the rural school of the future. Our studies in the earlier chapters and in the middle of the present one furnish us the groundwork for a conception of what this teacher should be. I think we have sufficient ground for the statement that the teachers in the rural school of the future will be more and more college graduates, or those who have a substantial equivalent therefor. The present trend in the curricula of our colleges and universities warrants us in the belief that this will stand for a splendid general education and a more detailed acquaintance with some particular field of human research. He will, of course, be a professionally trained man or woman, and this part of his equipment he may secure either at the same institution or in a superior normal school of which we shall probably have many in the future. His education will give him acquaintance with the main epochs in the history of culture and the development of speculative thought. Under this will be included the history of education both on its theoretical, or utopian side, and on its practical side which concerns itself with real systems and the work of actual educators. He must be equipped, further, with a knowledge of the fundamental teachings of psychology; and with the chief forms of social institutions and social forces and social reactions. This is not a visionary scheme, but rather a *résumé* of what the leading writers on educational matters so far as the preparation of teachers is concerned, are now holding up before us—in fact what the best superintendents are now demanding of applicants for high school positions and for supervisory positions of all kinds, when they can make these demands effective. This does not presuppose a term of professional preparation out of all proportion to that which is demanded in other professions, and it will not be out of all proportion to the salary paid. It may not be a severer requirement than we now make of the physician and the lawyer in the largest cities, or of the minister in the largest churches. There is a growing tendency in the preparation of the minister to place a new and increasing emphasis upon psychological, sociological, and pedagogical study, to give the young clergyman, if nothing else, a right attitude toward his problems and towards

the people met in masses ; and to give him a background and a basis for his work of philanthropy, social reform, or religious education and evangelization. The teacher's need is not less for this sort of background and insight.

There is one qualification for which I should expect the patrons of the rural school of the future to be especially insistent,—viz., sympathy with country life, country affairs, aims, and interests. This should not be a sentimental sympathy, but an intelligent one, a sympathy based on knowledge and insight. To this end I think it would be a good thing for the teacher in such a school to be in possession or control of a sufficient area of land to occupy a part of his recreation hours, as much of them as he might care to use in that way. There is no over-estimating the value of such extra-professional employment on the part of the rural school teacher for bringing him into *rapprochement* with his students and with the whole rural community. There can be no doubt that this was one strong bond of union between Christian ministers of an earlier day and their congregations. Most of them had as a perquisite of their position a small area of ground on which they raised the vegetables necessary for family use, and often enough corn and hay to feed the horse and cow. All this put the clergyman and his family into the closest touch with their parishioners, for it built up community of interest and sympathy. It paved the way for more pleasant and profitable pastoral visits because of this common interest and the common point of contact.

At this point it is necessary to point out a grave danger, which is that the minister or the rural teacher, instead of making it purely recreative, might become so much engrossed in his avocation as to have it encroach seriously upon the time and energy and freshness and interest which ought in all fairness to be reserved for the attainment of vocational ends—chiefly vocational efficiency and effective social service. It would seem that the highest possible end of such petty land culture as is here contemplated would be attained if there were a blending, in about equal proportions, of the recreative, the aesthetic, and the utilitarian elements.

5. The final topic of this chapter concerns itself with the *schoolhouse* in all its parts and the extra-scholastic uses to which it will be put, when the rural school shall have reached its period of fullest development. The location and site most suitable for this school have been briefly pointed out in previous connections. A location and a site that would be recommended to the most wealthy citizen of the community would be good enough for the rural school of the future. For, as Goethe says, "the best is good enough for children."

available in each community is not too good for the ornamentation of the grounds, the best followed in the best schools of our day are not what a community ought to be inspired to provide for its school. As yet we have not worked out the psychology of natural environment in a scheme of education. Only a few great leaders such as Goethe have had any adequate appreciation of its value ; few practical school men have realized their importance of their school location accordingly. As yet schools are private.

The school building of the future rural school will be a building of which we can now probably imagine nothing. In the first place it will be provided with an assembly hall and all the appurtenances belonging thereto. The hall will be used for purposes, many and various. Among the suggestive uses of this hall are the following : Illustrations on science, on travels, on art, on agricultural studies ; musical concerts by local and imported bands ; Grange meetings of the neighborhood ; the Bible, school of the community ; choral unions, or singing the regular opening exercises of all the rooms ; as a hall to be used for private or class instruction after school hours ; Saturdays ; school board meetings to be attended by the community ; neighborhood meetings of all descriptions, social, intellectual, or cultural ; farmers' institutes ; receptions under many auspices, only providing that sectarian and political animosities and hatreds shall not be the possible results of any such gatherings ; school meetings of all kinds. The benefits of all such meetings to the community are so evident upon first glance as to require no discussion in this connection. Such functions, if participated in by the people of a community would result in two things : first, that the community was a better community from the standpoint of intelligence and enlightenment, or that it was destined in the nature of things to become an ideal community in these

things. An important adjunct of the future rural school will be a school library. This could be housed either in one of the rooms near the assembly room or in a larger room of convenient access. But it would be a mistake to keep the books of the library in the closest possible proximity to the school and all the work of the school. The books should be carefully catalogued so as to show at a glance the contents on any given subject, and this catalogue should contain the most important magazine articles on those

subjects which are of the most interest to the citizens of a rural community. If put into good running order by one thoroughly familiar with library economy, the children could be led to co-operate in the control of the library and to do a large part of the work connecting with the issuance and care of the books.

Real talent is needed to select the sort of books that will best suit the wants of the community and at the same time not run the costs up higher than the resources will allow. As time goes on we shall have an increasing number of suggestive lists for such libraries. In fact we have some valuable suggestions of this sort now. What is said here will be of a general nature, and should be read in connection with the lists of books for such uses, which various state and county superintendents have been preparing and publishing for some time. It would seem that the core of the library should comprise the classics of all literatures, made accessible by the best translations if not originally written in English. Among these would fall the epic poems; the chief dramatic works from those of Æschylus to those of Stephen Phillips; the lesser poets and the historians; the best of those writers whose work concerns itself with science and nature; historical books on the great cultural peoples whose mission it has been to give us either the seed thoughts of our civilization or the form of it; works on those sciences that are contributory to the science of agriculture, such as physics, chemistry, botany, and geology; works on physiology, anatomy, biology, and the chemistry of foods; books on all phases of agriculture, such as those found in the Country Home Library, and similar collections; an ample assortment on biography, always including the greatest Americans; a collection on government and the state, its nature, functions and duties under a democratic *régime*; a small number on the leading municipal problems; works on economics and sociology in so far as these subjects are adapted to schools of this grade; treatises on the fine arts; magazines and periodicals none being taken that are not worth binding and keeping; general reference books, such as dictionaries, encyclopædias, atlases and gazetteers. A few books of purely compiled contents may be allowed, but many books of this description will give the library the air of superficiality and cheapness. It is a great shame that in so many public school libraries these books take the place of complete works in the exact language of the masters of style. For the purposes of a rural school library it is not necessary that the books should be expensive editions, when there are so many cheap editions that are quite well gotten up and legibly printed. If the funds really warrant such choice,

to be preferred. If a school wish to begin the library of books, it is better to spend a large part of the money to constitute a richer library than to spend nearly all of it in expensive books. In a small library such limited proportion of the great classics are available, and the cost from ten cents to a dollar. Books can be had still cheaper in bulk, and printing, and housed in a suitable manner for the purpose. This I have seen done in the cataloguing and shelving of books, and thoroughly done. In science, literature, and current literature good standard books should be purchased. Such a library as is composed of from 1000 to 1500 books and with the assistance of efficient committees, should be purchased, and catalogued according to the plan of small libraries, and put them into classes of books of a price varying from \$300 to \$500. A library of foreign languages is attempted, and the foreign languages should be added to the library. The library should be added to the library of masterpieces, and dictionaries for the languages together with histories and religious books where language is studied. The library should be added on the question of the school work and the library, which would be this. Too much attention should be given to the necessity of learning to use books accurately, and in a manner efficient. The general helplessness of the pupils in the presence of a large number of books in the library on the character of our work in the library is a part of the time now spent in the library of "riders"—in mathematics or in the sciences—were set aside for the right kind of the school library, the pupils should be able to use the library for their expenditure of time and money, and to be despised, even when it is used for purely theoretical problems; but one should be able to use the same time that he is working out of the library for his future interest. The future rural school will be its close ally in the system of the state in which it is operating library department. This is a part of the educational work of a rapid-

ly increasing number of our states. This brings even the ungraded rural school into potential touch with the latest and best in all kinds of books. What can be done through this department of library work for the rural school when consolidation shall have done its work, and thus rendered it possible for each centre asking for the loan of books from the free traveling library department to give out an increasing number of books? This would be a double improvement; it would enrich the library work in each borrowing school by making it possible to get a larger assortment, and it would make it possible for state authorities to keep up with the latest and best things in their purchases of books by making it unnecessary to purchase so many multiple copies of certain standard works. With the extension of such educational auxiliaries to these rural centres, university extension work could be carried on as successfully in the country districts as it is now in cities, unless it should be in the one item of comparative inaccessibility for the great lecturers who must cover great distances in the shortest time. There would be no other drawback unless it were the long distances the farmers would have to travel to reach the rural school centre. The rapid extension of the trolley railway will do away with this and other inconveniences which are now incident to life in the country.

Still another adjunct of the future rural school will be the art room with its art collection. This can be supplied with reproductions of paintings and sculpture, of different grades and varieties, at prices within the limit of legitimate expenditure for the enrichment of rural school art. Some busts and small statuary could be included in the collection, but most of the money should go for copies of famous paintings, pictures of famous statuary and of the world's greatest architecture. These may all be arranged according to schools of art, or countries, or in chronological order. Of many or all of these, slides should be made or secured so that this rich material could be used for occasional lectures and talks in the assembly room. The invention of the reflectoscope makes it possible to use in this way pictures found in books, in magazines, or in old catalogues. Collections of pictures from discarded magazines and old books can be accumulated and kept in reserve for such uses, while the good small reproductions of the great masterpieces may be used in the same way. Thus the realm of art in two of its most universal forms can be brought into close touch with every-day country life and thought.

Besides all this, at a small expense required to make it possible to convert the assembly room into a dark room even by day, this whole mass of material could be made to contribute its light upon the daily school work in literature, science,

history, and art. If the stereopticon is a necessary adjunct of the best city high and grammar schools it is even more so in the work of the corresponding schools in the country. No one change that could be made in the rural school would wholly redeem the country child from the dreary round of unprofitable, cheerless, and uninspiring school room "learning and reciting," but one great need is just such a contact with the great world of creative art in its varied forms as this use of the stereopticon and reflectoscope would give.

In the last place there will be a properly equipped school kitchen in connection with every up-to-date rural consolidated school. The purposes of this department of future rural school development will be in part as follows: (1) occasional demonstrations and conferences in the science and art of cooking; (2) more practical, regular, and methodically progressive, work in this branch of domestic economy, for the girls of grammar and high school grades; (3) purposes still more practical on reception occasions, at the social gatherings of the community; (4) to serve lunches and so on for attendants on gatherings lasting several sessions, as farmers' institutes, and educational meetings, if these are ever held separately in those days when the rural school shall have become an institution of splendid efficiency.

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